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TO

M. H. MESSCHERT,

THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED

WITH AFFECTIONATE ESTEEM, IN GRATITUDE FOR MANY KINDNESSES,

BY

HIS OLD FRIEND

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

At the urgent request of my publisher, I have written a brief, connected narrative, free from all confusing detail, to accompany and explain the maps, thus forming a basis for that geographic treatment of history which is essential to a clear understanding of human society.

The small space allowed forced me to be brief, but I have tried hard never to sacrifice clearness to brevity. My chief aim has been to give, in an attractive form, to general readers what they most wish to know, and to students such facts and observations as will serve to bind together what they have secured by their special studies. I have added to the table of contents, under each chapter, a brief but carefully-chosen general reference to standard works, and the most prominent magazine articles, as an aid to students who may desire to work out for themselves, in greater detail, any special line of investigation. As this book is designed chiefly for the use of those who know no language but English, I have confined these references strictly to English works, although the temptation has been great to put in some German or French masterpieces, especially when dealing with those portions of history where the supply of English material was either scanty or wholly wanting.

I want to add one word about the spelling of the Old English endings *burh* and *byrig.* The fact seems to be that *byrig* is only an orthographic variety of *burh*, but came to be generally used for the oblique cases of the word, while *burh* stood for the nominative.

Robert H. Labberton.

The Pines, Orange County, N. C.

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LIT.: Otho the Great and His Times: For. Quart. Rev., XVIII.

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LIT.: VON SYBEL: THE HISTORY AND LITERATURE OF THE CRUSADES.
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Lit.: W. Coxe: History of the House of Austria.
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Lit.: Guizot: History of France, xxviii.–xxxii.
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Lit.: Guizot: History of France, xxxiii.–xliii.
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115. **Great Britain during the latter part of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.**

Text: The Rise of Prussia.

Lit.: Guizot: History of France, Chaps. li.–lv.
Martin: Age of Louis XV.
Carlyle: Frederick the Great.
Earl Stanhope: History of England.

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XLIII. MAPS. 116. **Central and Northern Europe in 1795.**
117. 118. 119. **The Three Partitions of Poland.**

TEXT: Rise, Glory, and Fall of Poland.

LIT.: S. A. DUNHAM: THE HISTORY OF POLAND.
H. VON SYBEL: SECOND AND THIRD PARTITION; HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, BOOKS VI., X.

First Partition of Poland, by H. von Sybel: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 22. Ancient and Modern Poland: Westminster Rev., vol. 80. Poland and Lithuania: Dublin Univ. Mag., vol. 74. Frederick the Great and Catherine II.: Bentley's Mis., vol. 46. Emperor Joseph II.: Colburn's New Mo. Mag., vol. 123. Thaddeus Kosciusko, by E. S. Creasy: Bentley's Misc., vol. 30. Finis Poloniæ; Historical Forgeries: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 19.

XLIV. MAPS. 120. **Europe in 1810; The Age of Napoleon the Great.**
121. **The Battlefields of Northern Italy, 1794–1800.**
122. **Bonaparte's Campaign in Egypt and Syria.**

XLV. 123. **Europe in 1816; Congress of Vienna.**

TEXT: The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Empire.

LIT.: TAINE: ANCIENT REGIME AND FRENCH REVOLUTION.
MIGNET: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.
V. SYBEL: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, 1789–1796.
CARLYLE: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.
THIERS: THE CONSULATE AND THE EMPIRE.
LANFREY: HISTORY OF NAPOLEON I.
SEELEY: THE LIFE OF STEIN.

Era of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette: Bentley's Mis., vol. 56. The Diamond Necklace, by T. Carlyle: Fraser's Mag., vol. 15. Count de Mirabeau, by Macaulay: Edinb. Rev., vol. 55. Necker and Calonne, by E. S. Beesley: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 11. Madame Roland: Temple Bar, vol. 57. The Girondists: Edinb. Rev., vol. 87. Robespierre, by J. Morley: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 26. Danton: Temple Bar, vol. 32. Marat, by F. B. Graves: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 21. The Reign of Terror: Fraser's Mag., vols. 65 and 66. Early Part of Career of Napoleon I., by J. R. Seeley: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 44. Napoleon I., by E. S. Creasy: Bentley's Misc., vol. 33. Campaigns of Napoleon I.: Temple Bar, vols. 35, 36, 40, and 45; Edinb. Rev., vols. 18 and 32. Fall of Napoleon I.: North British Rev., vol. 33. Last Recollections of Napoleon I.: Blackwood, vol. 60.

XLV. MAPS. 124. **Theatre of the Crimean War, 1854–1855.**
125. **Theatre of the Danish War, 1864.**

XLVI. 126. **Europe in 1866, Peace of Prague.**
127. **German Confederacy from 1815 till 1866.**

TEXT: Europe from the Peace of Paris to the Peace of Prague.

LIT.: W. MUELLER: POLITICAL HISTORY OF RECENT TIMES.
MCCARTHY: HISTORY OF OUR OWN TIMES.
MEMOIRS OF PRINCE METTERNICH.
STRATFORD DE REDCLIFFE: THE EASTERN QUESTION.
A. W. KINGLAKE: INVASION OF THE CRIMEA.
H. M. HOZIER: THE SEVEN-WEEKS' WAR (1866).

Restoration of Louis XVIII.: Fraser's Mag., vol. 44. Augustus von Kotzebue: Temple Bar, vol. 62. Prince Metternich: British Quart. Rev., vol. 30, and Colburn's New Mo. Mag., vol. 74. The Greek Revolution of 1821: British Quart. Rev., vol. 66. Lord Castlereagh: North British Rev., vol. 10, and Blackwood, vol. 91. Coronation of Charles X. of France: Colburn's New Mo. Mag., vol. 4. George Canning: Fraser's Mag., vol. 60. George IV., and Queen Caroline, by H. Brougham: Edinb. Rev., vols. 67 and 68. Polignac's Three Days, by J. W. Croker: Quart. Rev., vol. 48. Louis Philippe: Temple Bar, vol. 41. The Carlists of Spain, by T. P. Adams: Galaxy, vol. 16. Isabella II., ex-Queen of Spain: Fraser's Mag., vol. 50. Greville's Memoirs of William IV.: Edinb. Rev., vol. 140. The Spanish Marriages of 1846: Blackwood, vol. 60. The French Revolution of 1848: Blackwood, vols. 63, 64, 65, and 66. Last Days of Louis Philippe: Quart. Rev., vol. 87. Napoleon III., painted by a Contemporary, by N. W. Senior: Cornhill Mag., vol. 27. What Napoleon III. has done for France: Westminster Rev., vol. 78. Victor Emanuel II., by J. M. Stuart: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 37. Louis Kossuth: All the Year Round, vol. 23. The Crimean War, by A. W. Kinglake: Cornhill Mag., vol. 7. Count Cavour: Fraser's Mag., vol. 97. Austro-Prussian War, 1865–66, by E. Dicey: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 14.

XLVII. MAPS. 128. **Europe in 1871—Peace of Versailles.**
129. **Theatre of the Franco-Prussian War.**

TEXT: Causes and Consequences of the Franco-Prussian War.

LIT.: W. MUELLER: POLITICAL HISTORY OF RECENT TIMES.
MCCARTHY: HISTORY OF OUR OWN TIMES.
BORBSTAEDT AND DWYER: THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

Austria since Sadowa: Quart. Rev., vol. 131. Franco-Prussian War, 1870–1871: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 22. Sketches from the Life of Thiers, by E. Crawford: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 37. Leon Gambetta: Fraser's Mag., vol. 104.

XLVIII. MAPS. 130. **Eastern Europe as regulated by the Treaty of Berlin, 1878.**

XLIX. 131. **Western Asia as regulated by the Treaty of Berlin, 1878.**

TEXT: Causes and Consequences of the Russo-Turkish War of 1878.

LIT.: W. MUELLER: POLITICAL HISTORY OF RECENT TIMES.
MCCARTHY: HISTORY OF OUR OWN TIMES.
F. W. GREEN: THE RUSSIAN ARMY AND ITS CAMPAIGNS IN TURKEY (1877–1878).

Montenegro, by E. A. Freeman: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 33. Servia in 1876: British Quart. Rev., vol. 63. Bulgaria, by V. Chirol: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 36. Abdul-Aziz and his Successors: International Rev., vol. 3. Turco-Russian War, 1876–1878, by A. Forbes: Nineteenth Century, vol. 2. The Terms of Peace, by E. A. Freeman: Gentleman's Mag., New Series, vol. 20. The Austrians in Bosnia, by R. H. Lang: Fortnightly Rev., vol. 32. New Bulgaria in 1879: Contemp. Rev., vol. 35.

L. MAP. 132. **Development of the Anglo-Indian Empire.**

TEXT: The Anglo-Indian Empire.

LIT.: J. TALBOYS WHEELER: A SHORT HISTORY OF INDIA.
ROPER LETHBRIDGE: A SHORT MANUAL OF THE HISTORY OF INDIA.
MURRAY AND OTHERS: HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF BRITISH INDIA.

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LI. MAPS. 133. **The present Territory of the United States in 1650.**
LII. 134. **The present Territory of the United States in 1750.**

TEXT: The Settlement of North America.

LIT.: BANCROFT: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
J. G. PALFREY: HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND.
F. F. CHARLEVOISE: HISTORY OF NEW FRANCE.
PARKMAN: FRANCE AND ENGLAND IN NORTH AMERICA.

Ponce de Leon: Southern Literary Messenger, vol. 8. Jacques Cartier, by A. Walker: Fraser's Mag., vol. 102. Raleigh in Virginia: American Bibliopolist, vols. 1 and 2. Samuel de Champlain, by O. H. Marshall: Mag. of American History, vol. 1. Henry Hudson, the Navigator, by G. M. Asher: Macmillan's Mag., vol. 14. The Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Settlement of Jamestown, Virginia: Southern Literary Messenger, vol. 24. When did the Pilgrims Land at Plymouth? by S. H. Gay: Atlantic Mo., vol. 48. Lord Baltimore and Maryland Toleration, by E. D. Neill: Contemp. Rev., vol. 28. Life of Roger Williams, by F. Parkman: Christian Examiner, vol. 16. Life of W. Penn: Edinb. Rev., vol. 94. James Oglethorpe, Founder of Georgia: Temple Bar, vol. 54. Robert Cavelier de La Salle, by R. H. Clarke: Catholic World, vol. 20.

LIII. MAP. 135. **The present Territory of the United States in 1763.**

TEXT: The Anglo-French Struggle for Supremacy in North America.

LIT.: BANCROFT: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
HILDRETH: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
BRYANT AND GUY: POPULAR HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. A SOUTHERN VIEW.

Description of Fort Duquesne: Olden Time, vol. 1. Braddock's Defeat, by Dr. Mayo: Democratic Rev., vol. 20. The Banishment of the Acadians: Chambers' Jour., vol. 22. Marq. de Montcalm, by E. S. Creasy: Bentley's Misc., vol. 32. Gen. James Wolfe: Bentley's Misc., vol. 31.

LIV. MAPS. 136. **The Territory of the United States, according to the Treaty of Peace in 1783.**
LV. 137. **The Territory of the United States after the Cession of Louisiana in 1803.**

TEXT: The Foundation of the Great Republic.

LIT.: BANCROFT: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
HILDRETH: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
GREENE: HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.
LOSSING: FIELD-BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION.

George Washington, by J. S. C. Abbott: Harper's, vol. 12. Benjamin Franklin, by T. Hughes: Contemp. Rev., vol. 35. James Otis: Worcester Mag., I. Patrick Henry, by V. W. Kingsley: Nat. Quart., vol. 27. Samuel Adams, by G. W. Greene: North American Rev., vol. 102. Thomas Jefferson, by J. Q. Adams: Old and New, vol. 7. John Hancock, by C. F. Adams: Pennsylvania Mag., vol. 1. Joseph Warren, by A. H. Everett: Sparks' Amer. Biogr., vol. 10. Ethan Allen, by B. J. Lossing: Harper's, vol. 17. Israel Putnam, by B. J. Lossing: Harper's, vol. 12. Nathan Hale, by H. P. Johnston: Harper's, vol. 60. John Stark, by R. H. Stoddard: Nat. Mag., vol. 12. Philip Schuyler: American Church Rev., vol. 25. Horatio Gates, by R. H. Stoddard: Nat. Mag., vol. 13. John Sullivan, by R. H. Stoddard: Nat. Mag., vol. 13. Nathaniel Greene, by G. W. Greene: Pennsylvania Mag., vol. 2. John Paul Jones, by J. K. Laughton: Fraser's Mag. Anthony Wayne, by E. Everett: North American Rev., vol. 42.

LVI. MAP. 138. **The present Territory of the United States after the Cession of Florida by Spain in 1821.**

TEXT: First Trials of the Great Republic.

LIT.: J. B. MCMASTER: HISTORY OF THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.
JAS. SCHOULER: HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC.
ALEX. JOHNSTON: HISTORY OF AMERICAN POLITICS.
H. V. HOLST: CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
B. J. LOSSING: FIELD-BOOK OF THE WAR OF 1812.
G. R. FAIRBANKS: HISTORY OF FLORIDA.
R. S. RIPLEY: THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

Shay's Rebellion, by B. J. Lossing: Harper's, vol. 24. Eli Whitney, by D. Olmsted: American Jour. of Science, vol. 21. Aaron Burr's Conspiracy: Fraser, vol. 57. Hull's Surrender of Detroit, by W. H. Sumner: New Engl. Register, vol. 11. Perry's Victory on Lake Erie, by H. Davies: North American Rev., vol. 53. Battle of New Orleans: Edinb. Rev., vol. 45. Seminole War: Southern Liter. Jour., vol. 3. Missouri Compromise: Democratic Rev., vol. 34. Texas and the Peace of Guadaloupe Hidalgo, by R. D. Owen: Scribner, vol. 16.

LVII. MAPS. 139. **Theatre of War in the United States, 1861-65.**
LVIII. 140. **Territory of the present United States in 1885.**
141. **Alaska.**

TEXT: The Great Trial—The Civil War.

LIT.: COMTE DE PARIS: HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.
J. W. DRAPER: HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.
W. SWINTON: CAMPAIGNS OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.
CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR, 12 VOLS., PUBL. BY SCRIBNER.
THE NAVY IN THE CIVIL WAR, 3 VOLS., PUBL. BY SCRIBNER.

The best Magazine articles on the Great Civil War are just now being written. Those written during or immediately after the strife are almost worthless.

"*There is no falsehood so gross, and no contradiction so palpable, but contemporaries will easily allow themselves to be deceived by it: for events and men are clear only when seen from a distance and time present is full of uncertaintity and darkness to those who live in it.*"—GUIZOT'S RICHARD CROMWELL.

CHRONOLOGY.

During the CHALDÆAN ASCENDENCY, ?–1600 B.C.

B.C. 5000.	Memphis founded.
4500.	The Sphinx.
4200.	The Pyramids.
4000.	Library at Agadé.
3700.	Babylon, Capital of Chaldæa.
B.C. 3500.	End of the Empire of the Pyramids.
3000.	The oldest Obelisk.
2500.	The Labyrinth.
2000.	The Hyksos
1700.	The New Empire of Egypt.

During the EGYPTIAN ASCENDENCY, 1600–1288 B.C.

B.C. 1600.	Beginnings of Phœnicia.
1500.	Rise of Assyria.
1400.	Greatness of Sidon.
B.C. 1350.	Rameses-Sesostris.
1320.	Moses.
1300.	Foundation of Nineveh.

During the ASSYRIAN ASCENDENCY, 1288–610 B.C.

B.C. 1130.	Tiglath-Pileser I.
1250.	Assyrian Conquest of Babylon.
1100.	Migration of the Dorians.
1050.	David.
975.	Judah and Israel.
853.	Carthage founded.
850.	Shalmaneser II.
840.	Homer.
820.	Lycurgus.
776.	First Olympiad.
753.	Rome founded.
745.	Second Assyrian Empire.
740.	Hesiod.
725.	Rhegium founded.
B.C. 720.	Sybaris founded.
717.	Assyria Mistress of the Trade of Western Asia.
710.	Croton founded.
708.	Tarentum founded.
691.	Babylon destroyed.
690.	Gyges, King of Lydia.
682.	Babylon refounded.
672.	Assyrian Conquest of Egypt.
666.	Assur-bani-pal (*Sardanapalus*).
650.	Psammetichus.
628.	Spartan Conquest of Messenia.
625.	Nabopolassar.
624.	The Laws of Draco.
610.	Destruction of Nineveh.

The Period of the FOUR GREAT POWERS, 610–538 B.C.

Babylon, Media, Lydia, Egypt.

B.C. 600.	Nebuchadnezzar.
594.	Solon's Seisachtheia (*removal of burdens*).
585.	Eclipse foretold by Thales.
B.C. 549.	Cyrus founds the Persian Empire.
540.	Pisistratus, Tyrant in Athens.
538.	Babylon taken by Cyrus.

During the PERSIAN ASCENDENCY, 538–330 B.C.

B.C. 525.	Persian Conquest of Egypt.
522.	The Revolt of the Magi.
521.	Darius Hystaspes (*died* 485).
513.	The Scythian Expedition.
510.	Destruction of Sybaris.
500.	Burning of Sardes.
494.	The Tribunes in Rome.
490.	Battle of Marathon.
480.	Battles of Salamis and Thermopylæ.
479.	Battles of Platææ and Mycale.
475.	The Confederacy of Delos.
465.	Battle of the Eurymedon.
456.	End of the Third Messenian War.
451.	Laws of the XII. Tables in Rome.
450.	Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides.
444.	Pericles (*died* 429).
443.	Foundation of Thurii.
440.	Herodotus and Thucydides.
431.	Beginning of the Peloponnesian War.
B.C. 430.	Pestilence at Athens.
421.	Peace of Nicias.
414.	Sicilian Expedition.
404.	End of the Peloponnesian Wars.
401.	Battle of Cunaxa.
399.	Death of Socrates.
396.	Destruction of Melpum and Veii.
390.	Burning of Rome.
371.	Battle of Leuctra.
362.	Battle of Mantinea.
343.	Beginning of the Samnite Wars.
340.	Great Latin War (*till* 338).
338.	Battle of Chæronea.
336.	Murder of Philip of Macedon.
334.	Battle of the Granicus.
333.	Battle of Issus.
332.	Alexandria founded.
331.	Battle of Arbela.
330.	Murder of Darius Codomannus.

DURING THE HELLENIC ASCENDENCY, 330–168 B.C.

B.C. 327.	Alexander in India.
326.	Second Samnite War (*ended* 304).
323.	Death of Alexander the Great.
321.	The Caudine Pass.
311.	First Roman *fleet of war*.
305.	Fall of Bovianum.
301.	Battle of Ipsus.
300.	Foundation of the Museum at Alexandria.
298.	Third Samnite War (*ended* 290).
295.	Battle of Sentinum.
282.	Pyrrhus of Epirus in Italy.
280.	Battle of Heraclea.
279.	Battle of Ausculum.
275.	Battle of Beneventum.
264.	First Punic War (*ended* 241).
262.	Agrigentum captured by the Romans.
260.	Battle of Mylæ.
256.	Battle of Ecnomus.
255.	Regulus in Africa.

B.C. 251.	Battle of Panormus.
250.	Empire of the Arsacidæ (*till* 226 A.D.).
241.	Battle near the Ægatian Islands.
222.	Rome conquers Cisalpine Gaul.
219.	Destruction of Saguntum.
218.	Hannibal crosses the Alps.
217.	Battle of Lake Trasimene.
216.	Battle of Cannæ.
215.	Battle of Nola.
212.	Capture of Syracuse.
207.	Battle of Sena Gallica *near the Metaurus*.
206.	End of the First Macedonian War (*begun* 215).
202.	Battle of Zama.
200.	Second Macedonian War (*ended* 197).
197.	Battle of Cynoscephalæ.
190.	Battle of Magnesia on the Sipylus.
171.	Third Macedonian War (*ended* 168).
168.	Battle of Pydna.

DURING THE ROMAN ASCENDENCY, 168 B.C.–630 A.D.

THE DECLINE OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

B.C. 146.	Destruction of Carthage and Corinth.
133.	Destruction of Numantia.
129.	Pergamus a Roman Province.
121.	Death of Caius Gracchus.
109.	Battle of the Muthul.
102.	Battle of Aquæ Sextiæ.
101.	Battle of Vercellæ.
90.	Marsian War (*ended* 88).
88.	First Mithradatic War (*ended* 84).
86.	Death of Marius.
83.	Second Mithradatic War (*ended* 81).
82.	Dictatorship of Sulla (*till* 79).
80.	War against Sertorius (*ended* 72).
74.	Third Mithradatic War (*ended* 64).
69.	Battle of Tigranocerta.

B.C. 67.	Piracy destroyed by Pompey.
63.	Conspiracy of Catilina.
60.	First Triumvirate.
55.	Cæsar in Britain.
53.	Battle of Carrhæ.
51.	Conquest of Gaul.
49.	Cæsar crosses the Rubicon.
48.	Battle of Pharsalus.
47.	War against Pharnaces.
46.	Battle of Thapsus.
45.	Battle of Munda.
44.	Assassination of Cæsar.
43.	Second Triumvirate. Murder of Cicero.
42.	Battle of Philippi.
31.	Battle of Actium.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE DOWN TO THE FINAL DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.

A.D. 9.	Varus defeated by Arminius.
14.	Death of Augustus. Tiberius (*died* 37).
23.	Rule of Sejanus (*died* 31).
41.	Death of Caligula. Claudius (*died* 54).
43.	Conquest of Southern Britain.
64.	First Persecution of the Christians.
68.	Death of Nero. Anarchy.
69.	Vespasian (*died* 79).
70.	Capture of Jerusalem.
79.	Titus (*died* 81).
85.	Britain a Roman Province.
98.	Trajan (*died* 117).
117.	Hadrian (*died* 138).
138.	Antoninus Pius (*died* 161).
161.	Marcus Aurelius (*died* 180).
192.	Death of Commodus (17th Emperor).

A.D. 193.	Military Anarchy (*till* 284).
226.	Empire of the Sassanidæ (*till* 642).
250.	The Decian Persecution.
270.	Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra.
276.	Completion of the Aurelian Wall.
284.	End of the Anarchy. Diocletian (*till* 305).
292.	The Four Imperial Colleagues.
303.	General Persecution of the Christians.
323.	Constantine the Great (*died* 337).
325.	First Council of the Christian Church at Nicæa.
375.	Beginning of the Great Migrations.
378.	Battle of Adrianople.
394.	Theodosius the Great (*died* 395).
395.	Final Division of the Empire.

THE GREAT MIGRATIONS.

A.D. 410.	Sack of Rome by Alaric.
415.	Visi-gothic Kingdom of Tolosa (*till* 507).
429.	Vandal Kingdom in Africa (*till* 534).
430.	Death of St. Augustine.
449.	English land in Britain.
451.	Attila defeated in the Catalaunian Fields.
452.	Foundation of Venice.
476.	End of the Line of the Emperors in the West.
486.	Victory of Clovis at Soissons.
493.	Theodoric the Great (*died* 526).

A.D. 507.	Battle of Vouillé.
526.	Visi-gothic Kingdom in Spain (*till* 711).
527.	Justinian I. (*died* 565).
534.	Belisarius destroys the Vandals.
555.	Narses destroys the Ostro-goths.
568.	Lombard Kingdom in Italy (*till* 774).
590.	Gregory the Great (*died* 604).
597.	St. Augustine converts Kent.
610.	Heraclius (*died* 641).
622.	Mohammed's Flight, *Hegira* (July 16).

DURING THE ARABIC ASCENDENCY, 630–962 A.D.

A.D. 632.	Death of Mohammed.
636.	Aidan settles at Lindisfarne.
638.	Arabic Conquest of Syria.
640.	Arabic Conquest of Egypt.
642.	Arabic Conquest of Persia.
661.	Ommiad Caliphs (*till* 750).
664.	Cædmon at Whitby.
680.	Murder of Hosain at Kerbela.
700.	Arabic Conquest of North Africa.
711.	Battle of Xeres de la Frontera.
717.	Leo the Isaurian (*died* 741).
732.	Victory of Charles Martel near Tours.
750.	Abasside Caliphs (*till* 1258).
755.	Deaths of Bede and Boniface.
756.	Emirate of Cordova (*till* 929).
768.	Charlemagne (*died* 814).
786.	Haroun-al-Rashid (*died* 802).
A.D. 787.	First landing of Danes in England.
800.	Restoration of the Western Empire.
827.	Ecgberht Overlord of England (*King of Wessen since* 800).
843.	Treaty of Verdun.
862.	The Ruriks in Russia (*till* 1598).
871.	Alfred the Great (*died* 901).
878.	Peace of Wedmore.
894.	Magyars settle in Hungary.
912.	Northmen settle in Normandy.
919.	Henry I. Founder of the German Kingdom.
929.	Caliphate of Cordova (*till* 1031).
933.	Battle of Merseburg.
936.	Otto the Great (*died* 973)
955.	Battle on the Lechfeld.
961.	Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury (*died* 979).

DURING THE ASCENDENCY OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE, 962–1250 A.D.

A.D. 962.	Foundation of the Holy Roman Empire.
972.	Caliphate of Fatimidæ in Egypt (*till* 1171).
987.	Hugh Capet, King of France (*died* 996).
988.	Conversion of Russia.
1000.	Greatness of Poland under Boleslaf.
1002.	Massacre of the Danes in England.
1017.	Cnut, King of England (*died* 1035).
1024.	Salic Emperors (*till* 1125).
1055.	Empire of the Seljuks (*till* 1092).
1060.	Norman Conquest of Southern Italy.
1066.	Norman Conquest of England.
1073.	Pope Gregory VII., *Hildebrand* (*died* 1085).
1086.	Completion of the Domes day book.
1096.	First Crusade (*till* 1101).
1099.	Taking of Jerusalem by the Crusaders.
1100.	Kingdom of Jerusalem (*till* 1291).
1127.	Guelphs and Ghibellines.
1138.	Hohenstaufen or Suabian Emperors (*till* 1254).
1147.	Second Crusade.
1152.	Frederick I., Barbarossa (*died* 1190).
A.D. 1154.	Plantagenets in England (*till* 1485).
1162.	Sack of Milan by Barbarossa.
1169.	Strongbow's Invasion of Ireland.
1170.	Murder of Thomas à Becket.
1171.	Saladin, Sultan of Egypt (*died* 1193).
1176.	Battle of Legnano.
1187.	Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1189.	Third Crusade.
1198.	Pope Innocent III. (*died* 1216).
1204.	Latin Empire of Constantinople (*till* 1261).
1206.	Gengis-Khan (*died* 1227). Map 99.
1207.	Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury (*died* 1228).
1212.	Emperor Frederick II. (*died* 1250).
1214.	Battle of Bouvines.
1215.	The Magna Charta.
1226.	St. Louis (*died* 1270).
1228.	Fifth Crusade.
1240.	Russia Conquered by the Mongols (*till* 1480).
1241.	Battle of Wahlstatt.
1248.	Sixth Crusade.

DURING THE ANGEVIN ASCENDENCY 1250–1382.

A.D. 1254.	Interregnum in Germany (*till* 1273).
1261.	Fall of the Latin Empire of Constantinople.
1264.	Battle of Lewes.
1265.	Charles of Anjou, King of Naples and Sicily.
1267.	Charles of Anjou, Count of Provence.
1268.	Execution of Corradino.
1270.	Seventh Crusade. Death of St. Louis.
1273.	Emperor Rudolf of Habsburg (*died* 1291).
1282.	The Sicilian Vespers.
1292.	Beginning of the Swiss Confederacy.
1297.	Victory of Wallace at Stirling.
1299.	Foundation of the Osmanli Empire.
1308.	Charles Robert of Anjou, King of Hungary (*died* 1342).
1309.	The Luxemburg Emperors (*till* 1437).
1314.	Battle of Bannockburn.
1315.	Battle of Morgarten.
A.D. 1322.	Battle of Ampfing near Mühldorf.
1328.	The Valois in France (*till* 1589).
1333.	Casimir the Great, King of Poland (*died* 1370).
1340.	Beginning of the great Anglo-French war.
1346.	Battles of Cressy and Neville's Cross.
1349.	The Black Death.
1356.	The Golden Bull.
1360.	Peace of Brétigny.
1363.	Burgundian Dukes of the House of Valois (*till* 1477).
1368.	Tamerlan.
1369.	Union of the two Burgundies (*till* 1477).
1370.	Louis of Anjou, King of Poland and Hungary (*died* 1382).
1371.	The Stuarts in Scotland (*till* 1714).
1380.	Tatars defeated at Kulikovo.

DURING THE ASCENDENCY OF THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE, 1382–1452, A.D.

A.D. 1382.	The Hanseatic League in its Zenith.
1384.	Death of Wyclif.
1385.	Portuguese Victory at Aljubarota.
1386.	Swiss Victory at Sempach.
1388.	Swiss Victory at Naefels.
1396.	Turkish Victory at Nicopolis.
A.D. 1397.	Union of Calmar.
1398.	Sack of Delhi by Tamerlane.
1399.	The House of Lancaster (*till* 1461).
1402.	Mongol Victory at Angora.
1410.	Polish Victory at Tannenberg.
1414.	Council of Constance (*till* 1418).

During the Ascendency of the HANSEATIC LEAGUE, 1382–1452 A.D.—*Continued.*

A.D. 1415. Battle of Azincourt.
1417. Hohenzollerns in Brandenburg.
1419. Beginning of the Hussite Wars (*till* 1436)
1420. Treaty of Troyes.
1429. Siege of Orleans.
A.D. 1431. Death of Joan of Arc.
1434. Cosimo dei Medici (*died* 1464).
1438. The Habsburg Emperors (*till* 1740).
1444. Battle of Varna.
1450. Cade's Insurrection.

During the TURKISH ASCENDENCY, 1452–1547 A.D.

A.D. 1453. Conquest of Constantinople.
1455. The War of the Roses (*till* 1485).
1460. Battle of Wakefield.
1461. Battle of Towton.
1462. Ivan the Great, first Czar of Russia (*died* 1505).
1469. Lorenzo il Magnifico (*died* 1492).
1476. Battles of Granson and Morat.
1477. Death of Charles the Bold (Duke since 1467).
1483. Murder of Edward V. Richard III. (*died* 1485.
1485. Battle of Bosworth.
1492. Discovery of America by Columbus.
1497. Sebastian Cabot lands in America.
1498. Ocean route to India by Vasco da Gama.
1500. Discovery of Brazil by Cabral.
1502. Margaret Tudor marries James IV. of Scotland.
1504. Ferdinand of Arragon conquers Naples.
1509. Death of Henry VII. Henry VIII. (*dies* 1547).
A.D. 1512. Battle of Ravenna. Gaston de Foix.
1513. Battles of the Spurs and Flodden.
1515. Battle of Marignano.
1517. Beginning of the Reformation.
1519. Conquest of Mexico by Cortez.
1521. Diet of Worms.
1524. The Peasants' War (*till* 1525).
1525. Battle of Pavia.
1526. Turkish Conquest of Hungary.
1529. First Siege of Vienna by the Turks.
1530. Diet of Augsburg. *Confessio Augustana.*
1532. Conquest of Peru by Pizarro.
1535. Conquest of Tunis by Charles V.
1536. First English Bible issued.
1540. Ignatius Loyola founds the Order of the Jesuits.
1542. Completion of the Tudor Conquest of Ireland.
1544. Peace of Crespy.
1545. Council of Trent (*till* 1563).
1546. Schmalkaldic War (*till* 1547).

During the SPANISH ASCENDENCY, 1547–1648, A.D.

A.D. 1547. Battle of Muehlberg.
1548. English *Book of Common Prayer.*
1552. Convention of Passau.
1555. Religious Peace of Augsburg.
1556. Abdication of Emperor Charles V. (*since* 1519).
1558. The English lose Calais.
1559. Death of Mary—Queen Elizabeth (*died* 1603).
1562. Civil Wars in France (*till* 1598).
1568. Revolt of the Netherlands (*till* 1648).
1571. Battle of Lepanto.
1572. Night of St. Bartholomew.
1576. First *Public Theatre* in Black-Friars.
1579. Union of Utrecht.
1580. Spanish Conquest of Portugal.
1584. Assassination of William of Orange.
1585. Colonization of Virginia.
1587. Execution of Mary Stuart.
1588. The Invincible Armada.
1589. The Bourbons in France (*till* 1848).
1598. Edict of Nantes (*revoked* 1685).
1600. Foundation of the East India Company.
1603. The Stuarts in England (*till* 1714).
A.D. 1608. Foundation of Quebec.
1610. Assassination of Henry IV.
1613. The Romanows in Russia (*till* 1762).
1616. Deaths of Shakespeare and Cervantes.
1618. Thirty Years' War (*till* 1648).
1620. Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers (Dec. 21st).
1624. Richelieu (*died* 1642).
1628. The Petition of Right.
1629. Charter granted to Massachusetts.
1630. Foundation of Boston.
1631. Sack of Magdeburg.
1632. Gustavus Adolphus falls at Lützen.
1634. Assassination of Wallenstein.
1640. Independence of Portugal.
1641. The Irish Massacre (Oct.).
1642. English Civil War (Aug.).
1643. Mazarin (*died* 1661).
1644. Battle of Marston Moor (July).
1645. Battle of Naseby (June).
1646. Charles I. surrenders to the Scots (May).
1647. Scots surrender Charles to Parliament.
1648. Peace of Westphalia.

During the FRENCH ASCENDENCY, 1648–1815 A.D.

A. During the Old Régime, 1648–1789.

A.D. 1649. Execution of Charles I. (Jan. 30th).
1650. Battle of Dunbar (Sept. 3d).
1651. Battle of Worcester (Sept. 3d).
1654. O. Cromwell, Lord Protector (*died* 1658).
1656. English Conquest of Jamaica.
1660. Restoration of the Stuarts.
1661. Personal Government of Louis XIV. (*died* 1715).
1664. New Amsterdam taken by the English.
1665. Plague and Fire of London.
1675. Battle of Fehrbellin.
1678. Peace of Nimwegen.
1679. Habeas Corpus Act.
A.D. 1681. La Salle discovers the Mississippi.
1682. Foundation of Philadelphia.
1683. Second Siege of Vienna by the Turks.
1688. The English Revolution.
1690. Battle of the Boyne (July 6th).
1700. The Northern War (*till* 1721).
1701. The Bourbons in Spain.
1702. The Spanish Succession War (*till* 1714).
1704. Battle of Blenheim (Aug. 13th).
1709. Battle of Pultowa (July 8th).
1713. Peace of Utrecht.
1714. The Guelphs in England.
1715. Louis XV. (*died* 1774).

DURING THE FRENCH ASCENDENCY, 1648–1815 A.D.—*Continued.*

A. DURING THE OLD RÉGIME, 1648–1789.

A.D. 1729.	Foundation of Baltimore.
1740.	Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa.
1741.	War of the Austrian Succession (*till* 1748).
1746.	Battle of Culloden (April 16th).
1755.	Earthquake of Lisbon.
1756.	The Seven Years' War.
1757.	Battle of Plassey (June).
1758.	Capture of Fort Du Quesne (Nov. 25).
1759.	Battle of the Plains of Abraham (Sept. 13).
1760.	George III. (*died* 1820).
1765.	Invention of the Steam-engine by Watt.
1766.	Repeal of the Stamp Act (*passed* 1765).
1768.	Invention of the Spinning-machine by Arkwright.
1772.	First Partition of Poland.
A.D. 1773.	The Boston Tea Party (Dec. 18th).
1774.	First Continental Congress.
1775.	Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17th).
1776.	Declaration of Independence (July 4th).
1777.	Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga (Oct. 17th).
1778.	Franco-American Alliance (May 2d).
1780.	Arnold's Treason.
1781.	Cornwallis' Surrender at Yorktown (Oct. 19th).
1783.	Peace of Paris between Great Britain and the United States (Sept. 3d).
1786.	Death of Frederick the Great.
1789.	Washington inaugurated President (April 30th).

B. SINCE THE GREAT REVOLUTION, 1789–1815.

A.D. 1789.	Meeting of the States General at Versailles (May 5th).
1790.	The first French Constitution.
1791.	The Legislative Assembly (*till* 1792).
1792.	Beginning of the Revolutionary Wars (*till* 1815).
1793.	Execution of Louis XVI. (Jan. 21st).
1794.	Reign of Terror (1793–94).
1795.	Third and Final Partition of Poland.
1796.	Bonaparte's first Italian Campaign.
1797.	Peace of Campo Formio.
1798.	Bonaparte in Egypt.
1799.	Bonaparte First Consul.
1800.	Battle of Marengo (June 14).
A.D. 1801.	Peace of Lunéville.
1802.	Peace of Amiens.
1803.	Louisiana purchased by the United States.
1804.	Napoleon I., Emperor (*till* 1815).
1805.	Battle of Austerlitz (Dec. 2d).
1806.	Battles of Jena and Auerstaedt (Oct. 14th).
1807.	Peace of Tilsit.
1808.	Peninsular War (*till* 1814).
1809.	Battle of Wagram (July 5th).
1810.	Napoleon marries Maria Louisa.
1812.	The Russian Campaign.
1813.	Battle of Leipzig (Oct. 16th–19th).
1814.	Napoleon on Elba.
1815.	Battle of Waterloo (June 18).

THE PERIOD OF THE FIVE GREAT POWERS, 1815–1870.

AUSTRIA, FRANCE, GREAT BRITAIN, PRUSSIA, RUSSIA.

A.D. 1819.	Cession of Florida by Spain.
1820.	Missouri Compromise.
1821.	Independence of Mexico.
1823.	Monroe Doctrine announced.
1825.	Brazil separates from Portugal.
1827.	Battle of Navarino (Oct. 20th).
1830.	July Revolution in Paris.
1831.	Suppression of the Polish Revolution.
1832.	Otto of Bavaria, King of Greece (*till* 1862).
1835.	Seminole War (*till* 1842).
1836.	Louis Napoleon in Strassburg.
1837.	Accession of Queen Victoria.
1839.	Independence of Belgium.
1840.	Louis Napoleon at Boulogne.
1842.	Maine Boundary Question settled.
1845.	Texas admitted into the Union.
1846.	Mexican War (*till* 1848).
A.D. 1847.	Surrender of the City of Mexico (Sept. 14th).
1848.	February Revolution in Paris.
1849.	Battle of Novara (March 23d).
1850.	The Erfurt Parliament.
1852.	Napoleon III., Emperor (*till* 1870).
1854.	Invasion of the Crimea.
1857.	Sepoy Mutiny.
1859.	Liberation of Lombardy.
1861.	Civil War in the United States (*till* 1865).
1862.	Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.
1863.	Battle of Gettysburg (July 1st to 3d).
1864.	Sherman's March to the Sea.
1865.	Assassination of Lincoln (April 14th).
1866.	Austro-Prussian War.
1867.	Alaska bought from Russia.
1868.	Spanish Revolution.
1869.	Opening of the Suez Canal.

DURING THE PRUSSIAN ASCENDENCY 1870–?.

A.D. 1870.	Franco-Prussian War (*till* 1871).
1871.	William I. Emperor of Germany.
1871.	Insurrection of the Commune.
1872.	Lord Mayo assassinated.
1873.	Ashantee War (*till* 1874).
1874.	Disraeli, Premier (*till* 1880).
1875.	Insurrection in Bosnia.
1876.	Centennial.
1877.	Russo-Turkish War (*till* 1878).
1878.	Treaty of Berlin.
A.D. 1879.	Resumption of Specie Payments in the U. S.
1880.	Completion of the Cologne Cathedral (*begun* 1248).
1881.	Assassination of Alexander II. of Russia (March 13th).
1881.	Assassination of Garfield (*died* Sept. 10th).
1882.	Gambetta, Premier (*since* 1881).
1883.	End of Arabi Pasha's Rebellion.
1884.	Chilian Conquest of Peru.
1885.	Death of General Grant (July 23d).

THE CHALDÆAN ASCENDENCY IN WESTERN ASIA.

THE plain watered by the Euphrates and Tigris formed one of the most ancient, productive, and thickly populated countries. Here was the centre and starting-point of that civilization which afterward spread throughout Western Asia. Its primitive inhabitants, the Accadians, traced their origin to the mountainous country south of the Caspian, from whence they had spread over Susiana, the shores of the Persian Gulf, and the fertile plain of Babylonia.

Among this primitive population settled Semitic tribes, the *Casdim* or "conquerors" of the Bible. When they first came in contact with the Accadians, these Semites were mere nomads, wanting even the first elements of culture. These, however, they soon acquired from their neighbors, and quickly made themselves indispensable to the agricultural Accadians. In the course of time they formed a commercial aristocracy which finally usurped the supreme power. The most brilliant representative of this Semitic Dynasty was Sargon I. (4000 B.C.), whose patronage of learning caused the library of Agadé (Sippara) to become very famous. He made also several campaigns against Syria and Palestine, and it was to them that the influence of Babylonian culture upon the populations of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean must first be traced. They borrowed the Babylonian system of weights and measures, its division of the solar year, and its style of architecture. Its brick-built palaces, colossal remains of which are still extant, were unsurpassed in size and strength. In the second generation after Sargon, a horde of Cassites or Kissaeans under Khammuragas conquered Accad and transferred the capital from Agadé to Babylon, which now became a city of importance for the first time. The forces of Elam and Shinar were overthrown and Khammuragas became King of the whole of Babylonia, the northern half, comprehending Sippara and Babylon, being known as Accad (the country of the highlanders), and the southern half, which included Huruk, Larsa, and Ur, the plain of Shinar. From this time onward (3750 B.C.) the country remained a united monarchy. Contemporary with this falls the period of Early Egyptian civilization.

EARLY EGYPT.

A. *The Old Empire* (5000–3500 B.C.).

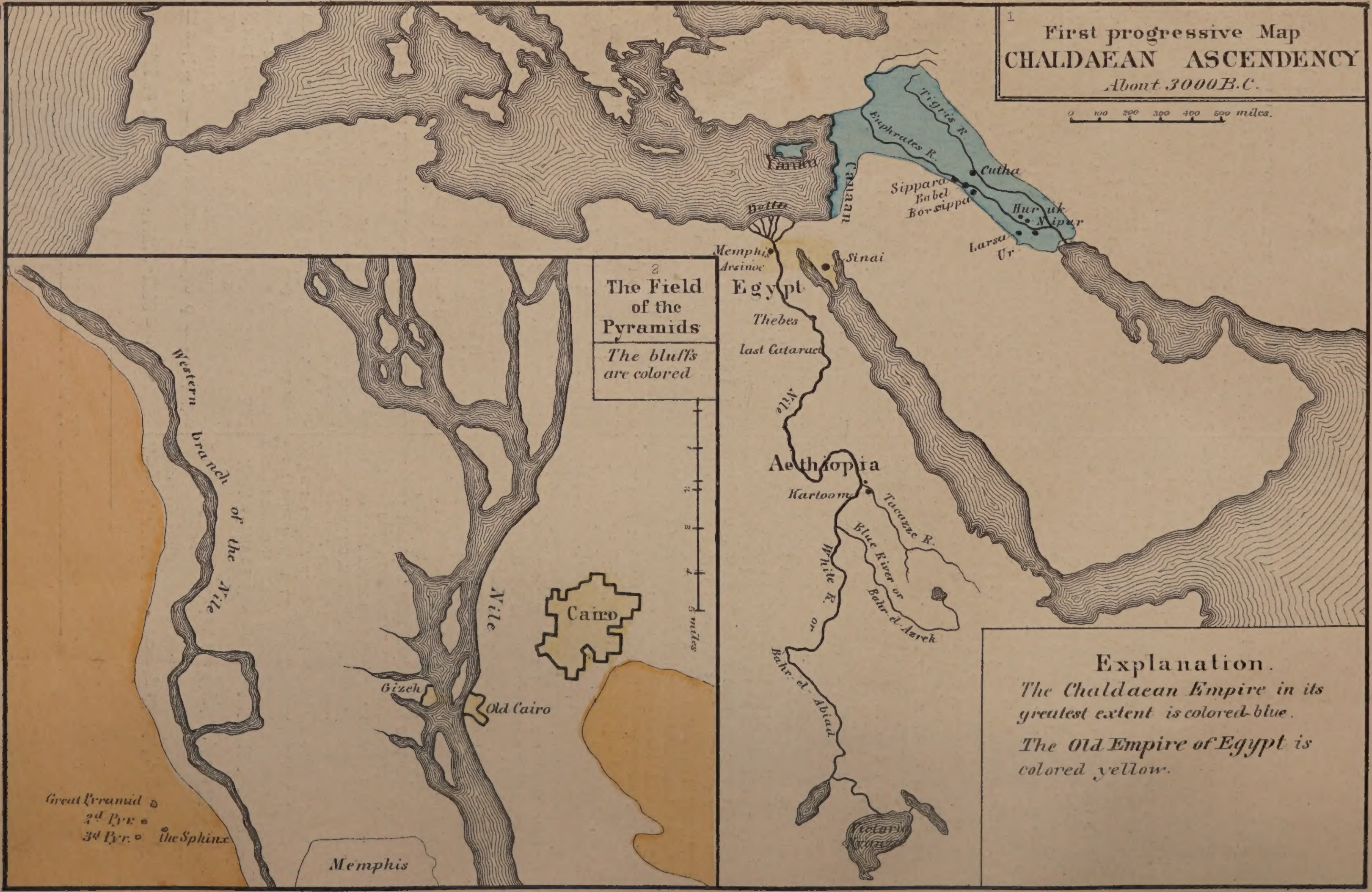
Egypt is that part of the Nile valley which is north of the last cataract. At the dawn of history it was occupied by immigrants from Asia, who found the country settled by an aboriginal race, which gradually absorbed the newcomers. Different states were formed which were finally united into one monarchy by Menes, the founder of Memphis (5000 B.C.), whose descendants ruled over Egypt for more than five hundred years. They formed the 1st and 2d dynasties and had succeeded in welding the central portion of Egypt together. The 3d dynasty (4449–4260 B.C.) added the peninsula of Sinai to its domain, where it worked the turquoise and copper mines.

During the fourth dynasty (4260–4068) the greater part of the Pyramid-tombs were erected in the necropolis of Memphis, on the edge of the Western desert. Traces and remains of more than seventy still exist. The largest, built by Khufu, or Cheops, was originally 480 feet high and still measures 450 feet. The second pyramid, which was built by Khafra, measured 453 feet (at present 450 feet). The third one, frequently called the Red Pyramid, was built by Menkaura (Mycerinus). It is still 204 feet in height (formerly 217 feet). The sacred guardian of the field of the pyramids is the great Sphinx, hewn from the rocks, to spare, as a Greek inscription says, each spot of cultivable land. During the 5th dynasty (4068–3820 B.C.) we pass to the age of Ti, whose tomb, with its delicately sculptured walls of alabaster, is among the choicest of Egyptian monuments. The most illustrious monarch of the 6th dynasty (3820–3500 B.C.) was Merira Pepi I., who fought against the Semites of Asia.

With the close of the 6th dynasty ends the Old Empire, the exact boundaries of which are unknown. All that can be proved is that these ancient sovereigns possessed the tract about Memphis, and the line of country connecting that tract with the mines of the Sinaitic peninsula. There are no memorials of them in the Delta, none in Upper Egypt. It is the glory of this period that it carried its own proper style of architecture to absolute and unsurpassable perfection. Not only wood but granite and other hard stones were carved into shape by the efforts of the chisel. The use of monochrome colors, principally red, black, blue, and yellow, prevailed. The domesticated animals were not so numerous as at a subsequent period. The Egyptian of the Old Empire had dogs and apes for his companions, but not yet cats. For riding he had only asses, not yet horses.

B. *The Middle Empire* (3064–2214 B.C.).

From the seventh to the eleventh dynasty the history of Egypt is a blank. Then (3064 B.C.) the Middle Empire begins. Great changes had taken place, and with the rise of the 12th dynasty we find ourselves in a different Egypt. The southern boundary has been pushed thirty-five miles beyond the second cataract, and Thebes is the capital. The obelisk which marks the site of On (Heliopolis near Cairo), raised (3000 B.C.) by Usurtasen I., is the oldest one we know of. These obelisks, cut from single blocks of stone (monoliths), characterize the Middle Empire just as the pyramids characterized the Old Empire. The "Lake of Inundations" (Meri, Moeris, Arsinoe) dug by Amen-em-hat III., on the western bank of the Nile, formed a large reservoir for regulating the river's water-supply. To the south of Meri he erected the so-called Labyrinth, a large palace for ceremonial acts. During the rule of the 12th dynasty began that immigration of Semites in the Delta, which eventually gave it the name of Caphtor (Keft-ur, Greater Phœnicia). They succeeded not only in making the Delta their own, but even in conquering the whole country, and under the name of Hyksos, ruling it for five hundred and eleven years. Zoan or Tanis was made their capital.



1

First progressive Map
CHALDAEAN ASCENDENCY
About 3000 B.C.

2

The Field of the Pyramids

The bluffs are colored

Explanation.

The Chaldaean Empire in its greatest extent is colored blue.

The Old Empire of Egypt is colored yellow.

C. *The New Empire* (1703–1288 B.C.).

The native Egyptian monarch who drove out the Hyksos, and became the founder of the 18th dynasty, was Aahmes. With him began a new era of prosperity and glory for Egypt. The injuries Egypt had endured at the hands of Asia were avenged upon Asia itself, and the boundaries of the Egyptian Empire were laid on the banks of the Euphrates.

The successors of Aahmes penetrated far into Asia, subjugated one nation after another, exacted heavy tribute from the vanquished, and embellished Thebes, their capital, with magnificent edifices. Egypt reached its zenith under the 19th dynasty (1462–1288 B.C.).

Rameses II., popularly call Sestura (the Sesostris of the Greeks), was the greatest monarch of the New Empire. He undertook campaigns toward the South to Donkola, toward the North to Asia Minor, and toward the East beyond the Tigris, to commemorate which he erected monuments in the conquered countries. He was also a great builder (Temples at Abydos, Memphis, and Thebes), but he cared more for the size and number of his buildings than for their careful construction and artistic finish. To this, however, Abu Simbel forms a striking exception. A huge and solemn temple was hewn out of a mountain, and its entrance guarded by four colossi, each with a divine calm imprinted upon its mighty features, and with eyes fixed toward the rising of the sun. The 20th dynasty (1288–1110 B.C.) had again to free the country from foreign rule, under which it had suffered for thirteen years. Set-nekth, the deliverer and founder of the dynasty, was succeeded by his son, Rameses III. (Rampsinitus), the last of the native heroes. On his accession Egypt was surrounded on all sides by enemies (Libyans, Hittites, Maxyes). Rameses III. conquered them all, and filled his coffers with the spoil of his enemies. When peace was established he increased his wealth by building a fleet of merchantmen in the harbor of Suez, and by renewing the mining-stations of Sinai. He endeavored to surpass the monarchs of the 19th dynasty in the magnificence of their buildings. At Medinet Abu, opposite Luxor, he erected a palace of such solidity that it still remains. When he died he left his son, Rameses IV., a prosperous and peaceful kingdom ; the Empire of earlier days had gone, and Egypt was generally contracted to its own borders, but within these borders it was at peace. The succeeding kings of the 20th dynasty were all named Rameses, and each was as insignificant as his predecessor. The high-priests of Amon at Thebes gradually supplanted their power, until at last all things were ripe for revolution, and the high-priest Hirhor seized the throne. He was the founder of the 21st dynasty (1110–980 B.C.), under which Egypt irrevocably lost the remnant of her Asiatic provinces and her ascendency in Western Asia came to an end.

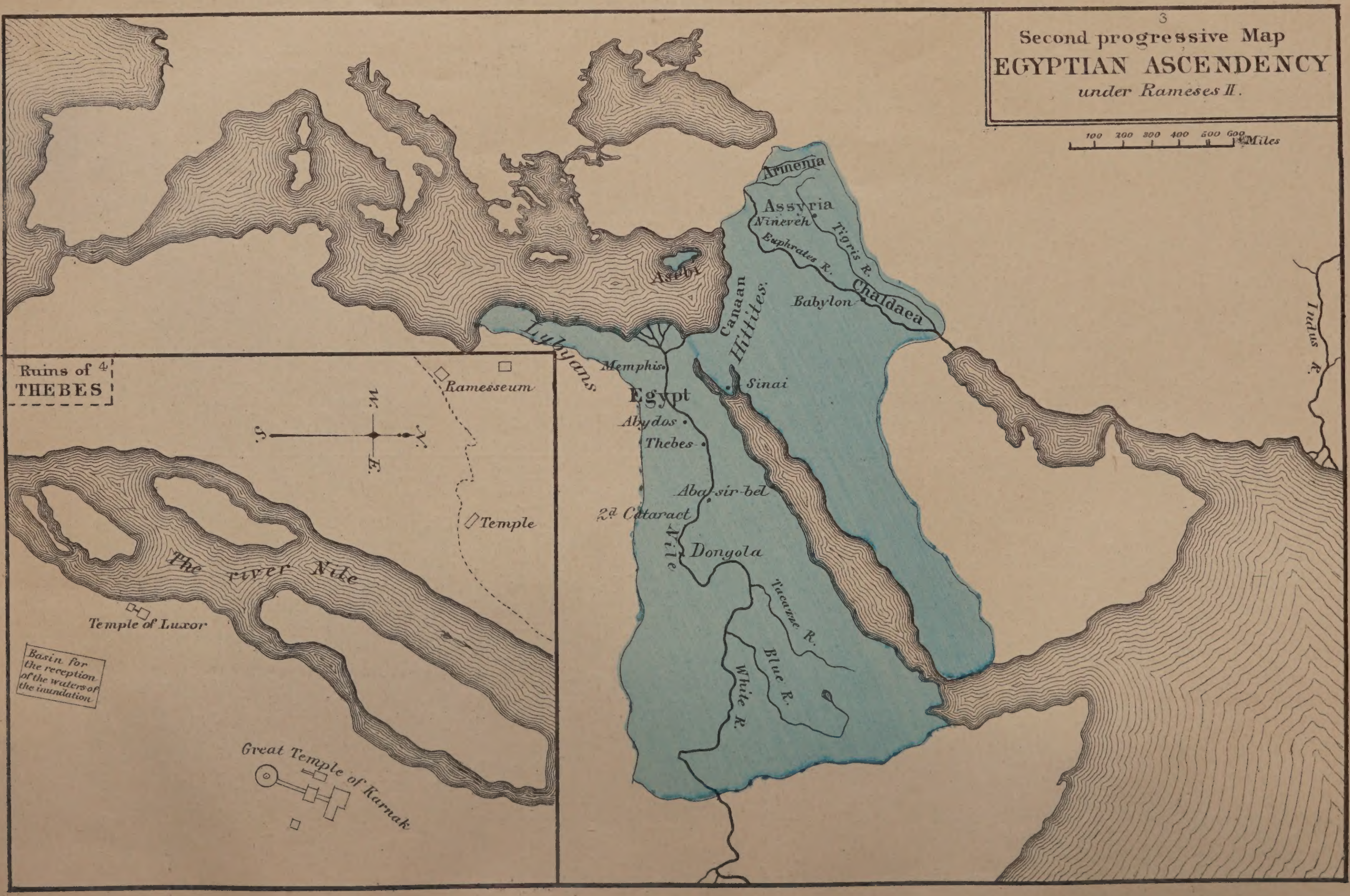
Finally (672 B.C.), Egypt became a province of Assyria, divided into twenty districts, generally governed by a native prince.

T-Apé, Thebai, Thebes, the Capital of the New Empire.

Just north of the gorge of the Gebelein the Nile enters upon a broad green plain, spreading itself out on both banks of the stream. Here, there open out on either side lines of route offering great advantages for trade, on the one hand with the lesser Oasis, and so with the tribes of the African interior ; on the other with the western coast of the Red Sea and the spice region of the opposite shore. In this favored position had grown up a flourishing town, Apé, or with the article, T-Apé, which form the Greeks represented by Thebai, whence our Thebes. During the 11th dynasty it became the capital of Egypt, which it continued to be until the Hyksos conquered the country and fixed their capital at Zoan. The 18th dynasty, which delivered Egypt from the Hyksos, restored Thebes to her former rank, and during the Egyptian Ascendency it was not only the capital of the Empire, but one of the greatest cities of the world. As the New Empire surpassed the Old in power so did Thebes eclipse the older Memphis. The city must have presented a most marvellous appearance when the architectural works of the Pharaohs stood erect and rose up from the earth solid and massive as rocks on either bank of the Nile, while the multitude of obelisks and colossi towered up like a forest of stone. On the right bank rose the buildings of the residence of the Pharaoh. Close to the river stood the immense temples, behind these the palaces of the kings and nobles, and still farther from the river, in shady streets, were the high, narrow houses of the citizens.

The ruins of two colossal temples still remain. The greatest (1200 × 360 feet) is near the modern village of Karnak. A smaller one (over 800 feet long) is at the modern village of Luxor (two miles south of Karnak). On the western bank was the famous Necropolis of Thebes. Looking up from the shore to the precipice of the western hills, hundreds of closed portals could be seen, some solitary, others closely ranged in rows. They were the tombs of the Thebans. The graves and the passages that led to them are all hewn in the rock. Separated from the first range of hills by a desolate ravine, there rises, farther to the west, a second wall of rock, which the Arabs call Bîbân el-Moluk, *i.e.*, the Gates of the Kings. Here are the tombs of the kings of the 19th and 20th dynasties. The Necropolis contained also many temples. The Rameseum, and near it the temple of Amen-hotep III. with the famous colossi, were near the modern village of Koornah. Westward of it was the great temple and palace of Rameses III.

Homer calls Thebes the hundred-gated, a designation which must refer to the entrances of temples and palaces, since the city had neither walls nor gates.



3

Second progressive Map
EGYPTIAN ASCENDENCY
under Rameses II.

ASSYRIAN ASCENDENCY.

I. The earliest Assyrian princes of whom we know were merely petty rulers of Asshur, the original capital, from which it derived its name. It was not till long afterward that the chieftains of Asshur became Kings of Assyria. From this time forward, however, their power continued steadily to grow. Since 1500 B.C., Assyria gradually took the place of the worn-out Chaldæan Empire, and played the chief part in the affairs of Western Asia until the day of its final fall. After the northward extension of Assyria, the capital was moved from Asshur, some sixty miles farther north, to Nineveh (Nina, the fish-town) by Shalmaneser I. (1300 B.C.). The literature and culture of Chaldæa now migrated into Assyria, and Nineveh took the place of Babylon. But about 1000 B.C., Assyria declined for a while. David was enabled to carry the Hebrew arms as far as the banks of the Euphrates, and Assyria itself was overrun by the Chaldæan King Sibir.

Once more, however, the Assyrian power revived under Assur-natsir-pal (about 876 B.C.), an energetic warrior and great conqueror. Armenia, Media, Susiana, Persis, and Chaldæa were traversed by his armies again and again, and his image was sculptured on the rocks at the sources of the Tigris. The cities of Assyria were enriched with the spoils of foreign victory. Splendid palaces, temples, and other public buildings were erected and adorned with elaborate sculptures and rich paintings. He was succeeded by his son, Shalmaneser II., whose long and prosperous reign of thirty-five years marks the climax of the First Assyrian Empire. But after his death (824 B.C.) Assyria gradually declined, and in 745 B.C. the last of the old Assyrian dynasty was murdered. Pul seized the vacant throne and assumed the name of the ancient conqueror, Tiglath-Pileser. With his accession the Second Assyrian Empire may be said to begin.

II. This Second Assyrian Empire was essentially a commercial one. It was founded and maintained for the purpose of attracting the trade of Western Asia. The resources of the Empire were reserved for the subjugation of Babylonia, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, the rich and civilized marts of the ancient world. The conquered nations became subject provinces, governed by Assyrian Satraps; while turbulent populations were deported to some distant part of the Empire.

The third king, an usurper, who assumed the venerable name of Sargon, was the father of this policy. In 720 B.C. he took Samaria and deported twenty-seven thousand two hundred of its leading inhabitants into Media; then he crushed the Philistines, made his way to Egypt along the sea-coast, through Philistia, and conquered the Egyptians at Raphia. Three years later (717 B.C.), he took Carchemish, the wealthy capital of the once powerful Hittites, which commanded the great caravan road from the East. By this capture, Assyria became mistress of the trade of Western Asia.

Under Sennacherib, Babylon, which had revolted, was captured. Its inhabitants were sold into slavery and the venerable city utterly destroyed (691 B.C.). But it was rebuilt by his son and successor, Esar-haddon. Henceforward, Babylon became the second capital of the Empire, the Assyrian court residing alternately there and at Nineveh. This tactful policy pacified the South. His political sagacity was equal to the high military talents which enabled him to complete the fabric of the Second Empire by the conquest of Egypt (672 B.C.). It was divided into twenty satrapies, governed partly by Assyrians, partly by native vassal-princes, who were, however, watched by a number of Assyrian garrisons.

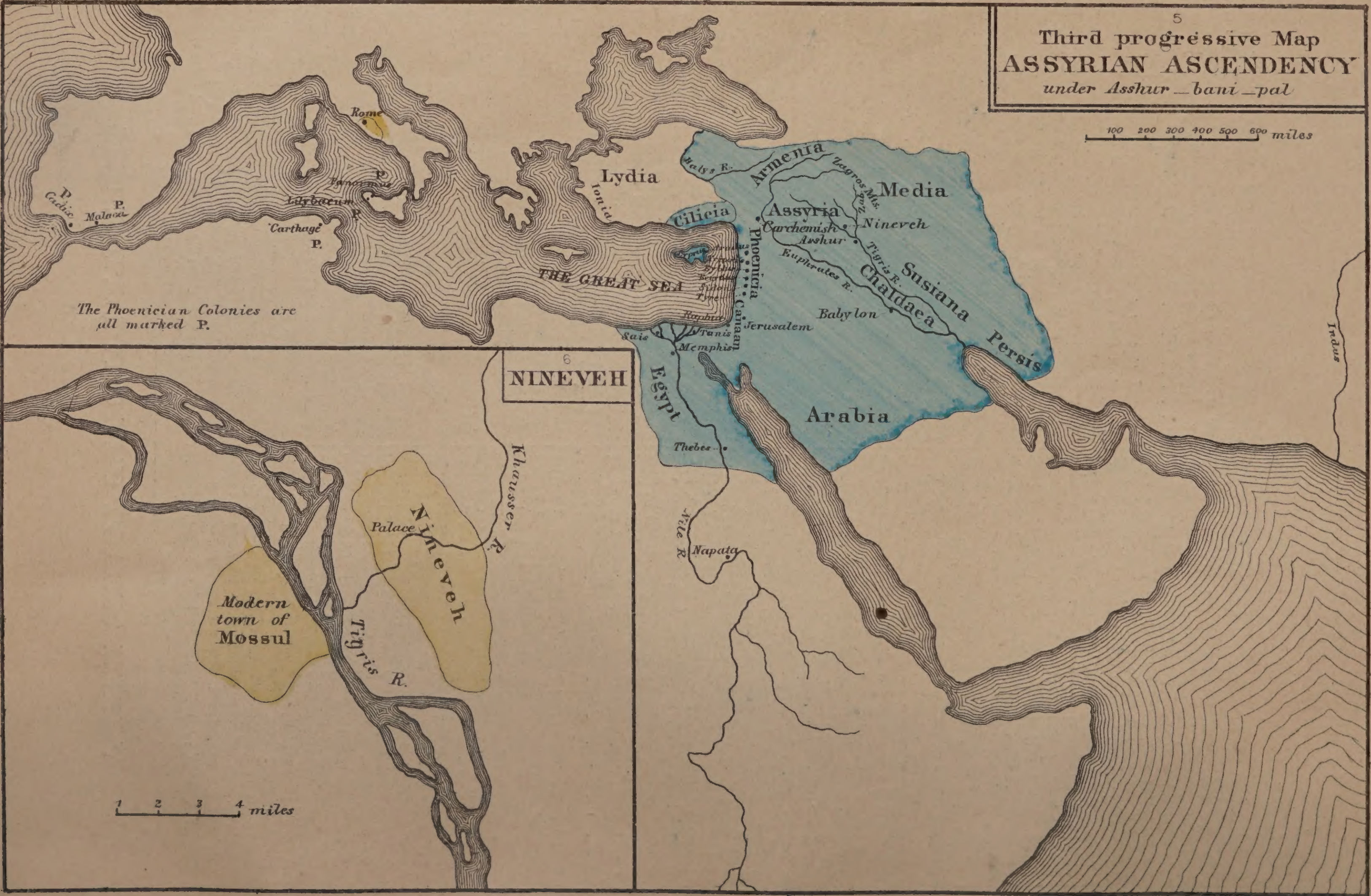
Esar-haddon was succeeded in 667 by his son Assur-bani-pal, the Sardanapalus of the Greeks, who was a munificent patron of literature and art. After the conquest of Susiana and Persis, which took place during his reign, the Assyrian Empire reached its final limits. But it had within it the elements of decay, and the pride and ambition of the monarch brought about the coalition which robbed him of Egypt and well-nigh shattered the whole Empire.

Assur-bani-pal found Egypt in a state of revolt. Two campaigns were required to quell it. Thebes was plundered and destroyed, the ground strewn with its ruins, and two of the obelisks at Karnak sent as trophies to Nineveh. Tyre surrendered to him, and far-off Cilicia owned his supremacy. The name of the great King spread to the extreme west of Asia Minor, and Gyges, of Lydia, voluntarily sent him tribute, trusting to Assyria for defence against the adherents of the dynasty he had displaced and the Cimmerian hordes that menaced him without. But Gyges soon discovered that the friendship of Nineveh was a burden rather than a gain. The Assyrian Empire was threatening to swallow up all the East.

But in 652 B.C. a general insurrection broke out, headed by Assur-bani-pal's brother, the Viceroy of Babylon, in the East, and by Psammetichus of Sais in the West. Psammetichus, the Assyrian vassal-king of Sais and Memphis, succeeded in shaking off the Assyrian yoke and restoring the independence of Egypt; for Assur-bani-pal was too much occupied with the revolt of Babylon. With great difficulty this revolt was crushed. Babylon and Cuthah were reduced by famine in 649, and Sammughes burnt himself to death in his palace. The union of Babylonia with Assyria now became closer than before. It was administered by a subordinate and often-changed governor. But after Assur-bani-pal's death, these governors again began to extend their power, and one of them, Nabopolassar, made himself independent (625 B.C.). Assyria survived the loss of Babylonia but a few years. The storm at last fell upon it from the North. Medes, Cimmerians, and others united their forces against it; the frontier cities fell first, then Nineveh itself was besieged, captured, and utterly destroyed (610 B.C.).

The Assyrian Empire was now divided between Media and Babylonia. (Continued in the text to Map V.)

During the last years of the First Assyrian Empire, about 753 B.C., was founded the city of Rome. Contemporary with the Second Assyrian Empire is the conquest of Latium by Rome.



5

Third progressive Map
ASSYRIAN ASCENDENCY
under Asshur — bani — pal

The Phoenician Colonies are all marked P.

6

NINEVEH

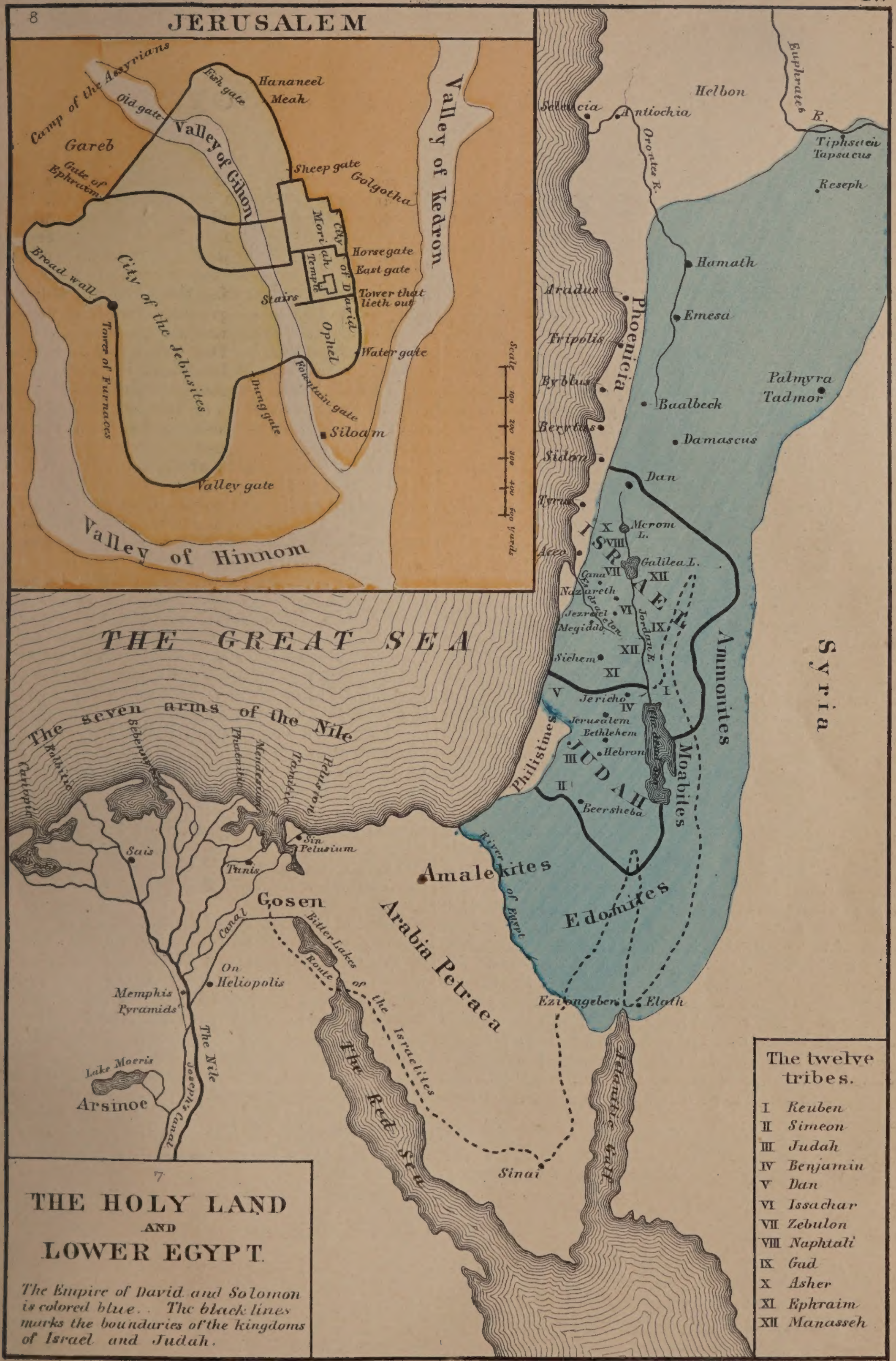
THE HOLY LAND AND LOWER EGYPT.

A NARROW but fertile strip of land, from ten to fifteen miles in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in length, shut in between Lebanon and the Sea, was the home of the Phœnicians, who called it Canaan, "the lowlands." The Egyptians named it the land of Keft, or "the palm," of which the Greek Phœnikê is but a translation. On this narrow strip arose the Phœnician cities. Byblos, with its dependency of Berytus, was perhaps the oldest settlement on the coast. It always formed a distinct territory in the midst of the Phœnician confederacy. The principal towns of this confederacy were: Acco, Tyre, Sidon, Tripolis, and Aradus. These cities were the first trading communities the world had seen. Their power and wealth, and even their existence, depended on commerce. Their colonies were originally mere marts, and their voyages of discovery were undertaken in the interest of trade. The tin of Britain, the silver of Spain, and the pearls and ivory of India, all flowed into their harbors. But the purple trade was the staple of their industry. It was by the help of the *murex*, or purple fish, that they had first become prosperous, and when the coast of Palestine could no longer supply sufficient purple for the demands of the world, they made their way in search of it to the coasts of Greece, of Sicily, and of North Africa. Thus the Phœnicians became the intermediaries of ancient civilization. One of the earliest spots colonized by them was the Egyptian Delta, which became so thickly populated by Phœnicians as to cause it to be termed Keft-ur (Caphtor), or Greater Phœnicia. This Delta was the space between the most distant branches of the river Nile, which was called Delta on account of its almost triangular shape, resembling that of the Greek letter Delta (Δ). The point where the river begins to bifurcate has remained about the same. Here the river anciently divided into three branches, the Pelusiac, running east, the Canopic, running west, and the Sebennytic, which flowed between these two, continuing indeed the general northward direction hitherto taken by the Nile, and piercing the Delta through the centre. From the Sebennytic branch two others were derived, the Tanitic and the Mendesian, both of which emptied themselves between it and the Pelusiac branch. The lower part of the remaining two branches, the Bolbitic and the Phatnitic, were artificial, and were constructed probably when the outer outlets began to dry up. It is by these two mouths that the river at the present day finds its outlet.

In the Eastern part of the Delta, in the district of Gosen (or Goshen), the Hebrew nation arose. In that country the descendants of Jacob became a nation; Moses conducted the Hebrews out of Egypt (1320 B.C.). When the Hebrews had delivered themselves from the dominion of Egypt, they pastured their flocks on the peninsula of Sinai, from whence they threw themselves upon the rich uplands on the east of the Jordan. Then they descended into the valley and invaded the land beyond the river. They conquered the *Promised Land*, but without entirely subjugating the former inhabitants. To the tribe of Levi was given the exclusive care and service of the tabernacle, and all things used in the religious ceremonial. The other twelve tribes, named from ten sons of Jacob and two sons of Joseph (Ephraim and Manasseh), settled in separate districts, which were more or less cut off from one another by remnants of the former inhabitants, and formed an exceedingly loose union of twelve small states under tribal chiefs, which was at times hard pressed by neighboring tribes. In order to make head against them, the tribes were firmly united into a kingdom. Three monarchs ruled the united tribes: Saul, David, and Solomon. Each reigned forty years.

The progress of the nation during this brief space is most remarkable. The first was merely a general; the second was a warrior king, who enlarged the boundaries of Palestine, fixed the capital at Jerusalem, and organized an army; the third was a magnificent Oriental monarch. Under this third king, Solomon, the Hebrews were the paramount race in Syria. An empire had been formed which reached from the Euphrates, at Thapsacus, to the Red Sea and the borders of Egypt. Numerous monarchs were tributary to the Great King, who reigned at Jerusalem, which court vied in splendor with those of Nineveh and Memphis. But the power and greatness of the king had become oppressive to the bulk of the people. Such a rapid growth was necessarily exhaustive of the nation's strength, and the decline of the Israelites dates from the division of the kingdom (975 B.C.).

Rehoboam, son of Solomon, drove the bulk of his native subjects into rebellion. In the place of the mighty empire which under David and Solomon took rank among the foremost powers of the earth we find two petty kingdoms. The kingdom of Israel (975–721), established by the revolt of Jeroboam, comprised ten out of the twelve tribes, and reached from the borders of Damascus to within ten miles from Jerusalem. It included the whole of the Trans-Jordanic territory, and exercised lordship over the Moabites. The kingdom of Judah (975–586) was composed of two entire tribes only, and confined to the lower and less fertile portion of the Holy Land. It compensated, however, for these disadvantages by its compactness, its unity, the strong position of its capital, and the indomitable spirit of its inhabitants.



7

THE HOLY LAND
AND
LOWER EGYPT.

The Empire of David and Solomon is colored blue. The black lines marks the boundaries of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

The twelve tribes.

I *Reuben*
II *Simeon*
III *Judah*
IV *Benjamin*
V *Dan*
VI *Issachar*
VII *Zebulon*
VIII *Naphtali*
IX *Gad*
X *Asher*
XI *Ephraim*
XII *Manasseh*

THE FOUR GREAT POWERS.

Two considerable empires arose (610 B.C.) out of the ashes of Assyria—the Babylonian and Median. These empires were established by mutual consent; they were connected together by the ties of affinity which united their rulers. To Cyaxares, the founder of the Median Empire, the conquest of Assyria did not bring a time of repose. He engaged in a series of wars, and subdued to himself all Asia to the east of the Halys.

The advance of his western frontier to this river brought him in contact with the Lydian power.

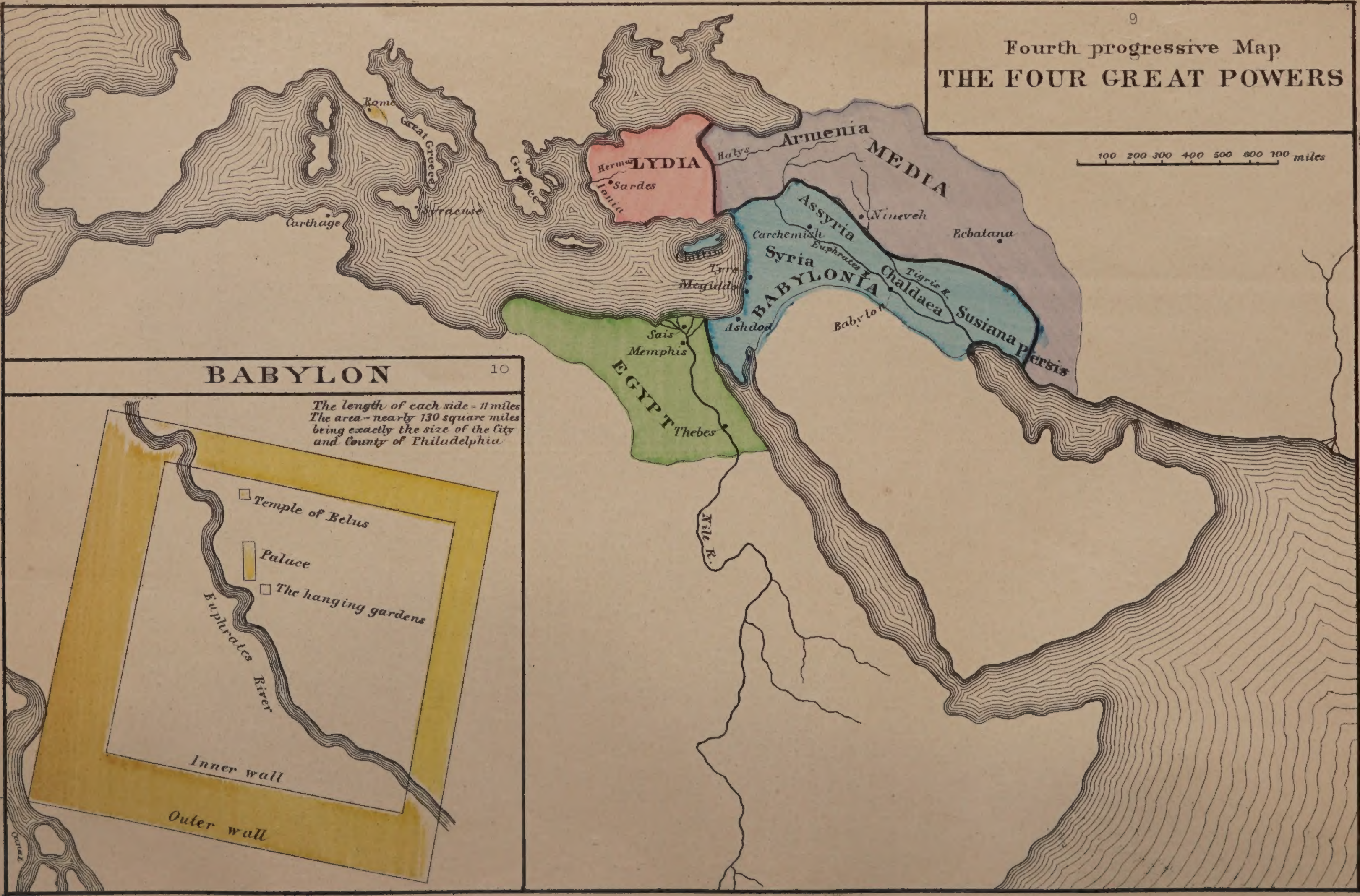
The broad plains of the Hermus and Cayster, in which the Lydian monarchy grew up, are the richest in Asia Minor, and the mountain chains by which they are girdled, while sufficiently high to protect them, form cool and bracing sites for cities, and are rich in minerals of various kinds.

The first Lydian dynasty of the mythical Atyads was succeeded by the second dynasty of the Heracleids, whose rule lasted for over five hundred years. This dynasty ended with Candaules, who was killed (690 B.C.) by Gyges, the founder of the third dynasty—the Mermnadæ. He extended the Lydian dominion as far as the Hellespont. During his reign Lydia was invaded by the Cimmerians. Gyges, after driving them out several times, was finally captured in battle and beheaded by them (652 B.C.). His great-grandson, Alyattes III., succeeded in extirpating the Cimmerian scourge. This was the king who (590 B.C.) was attacked by Cyaxares. After six years of fighting a treaty between Alyattes and Cyaxares was brought about (585 B.C.) by the kindly offices of the Babylonian King and the intervention of the Eclipse foretold by Thales. In order to cement this treaty, the daughter of Alyattes, Aryenis, was married to Astyages, the son of Cyaxares. By this peace the three great monarchies of the time—the Median, Lydian and the Babylonian—were placed on terms of the closest intimacy. From the shores of the Ægean to those of the Persian Gulf, Western Asia was now ruled by interconnected dynasties, bound by treaties to respect each other's rights and perhaps to lend each other aid in important conjunctures.

Lydia especially reaped the fruit of this alliance. After the capture of Smyrna had provided it with a port, it rapidly progressed in power and property. Its ships trafficked in all ports of the Ægean, and its kings sent offerings to Delphi and affected to be Greek. It remained for Crœsus, however, the son of Alyattes, to make himself master of the wealthy trading cities of Ionia. With the commerce of Ionia and the native treasures of Lydia alike at his command, he became the richest monarch of his age, and all the nations of Asia Minor as far as the Halys owned his sway.

The fourth of the great powers was Egypt. After the Assyrian garrisons had been driven out, and the vassal-kings had been reduced (not without Lydian assistance), Psammetichus became the sole and independent Lord of united Egypt. He was the founder of the twenty-sixth dynasty, under which took place a revival of peace, power, and prosperity, accompanied by a revival of art. Sais, the capital of the twenty-sixth dynasty, was adorned with buildings which almost rivalled the mighty monuments of Thebes. Necho, the son of Psammetichus, strove to make the Egyptians the chief trading people of the world. An attempt was accordingly made to unite the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, by cutting a canal from Bubastis to the Bitter Lakes, and only given up after the death of 120,000 of the laborers. Phœnician ships were sent to circumnavigate Africa, and returned successful after three years' absence. But Necho's dreams of Asiatic sovereignty were dissipated by his defeat at Carchemish at the hands of Nebuchadnezzar, who, in succeeding his father, in 604 B.C., found himself the undisputed Lord of all the countries between the Tigris and Mediterranean.

Babylon was now enriched with the spoils of foreign conquest. Its buildings and walls were worthy of the metropolis of the world. Hanging gardens were constructed for Queen Amytis (daughter of Cyaxares), and the great temple of Bel was roofed with cedar and overlaid with gold. After a reign of forty-two years Nebuchadnezzar died (562 B.C.). Within eight years after his death the power passed from the house of Nabopolassar. Nabonidos was raised to the throne, who, after a reign of seventeen and a half years, witnessed the end of the Babylonian Empire (538 B.C.). During this period (610–538) Rome quietly extended and consolidated its power over Latium.



9

Fourth progressive Map
THE FOUR GREAT POWERS

BABYLON 10

The length of each side = 11 miles
The area = nearly 130 square miles
being exactly the size of the City
and County of Philadelphia

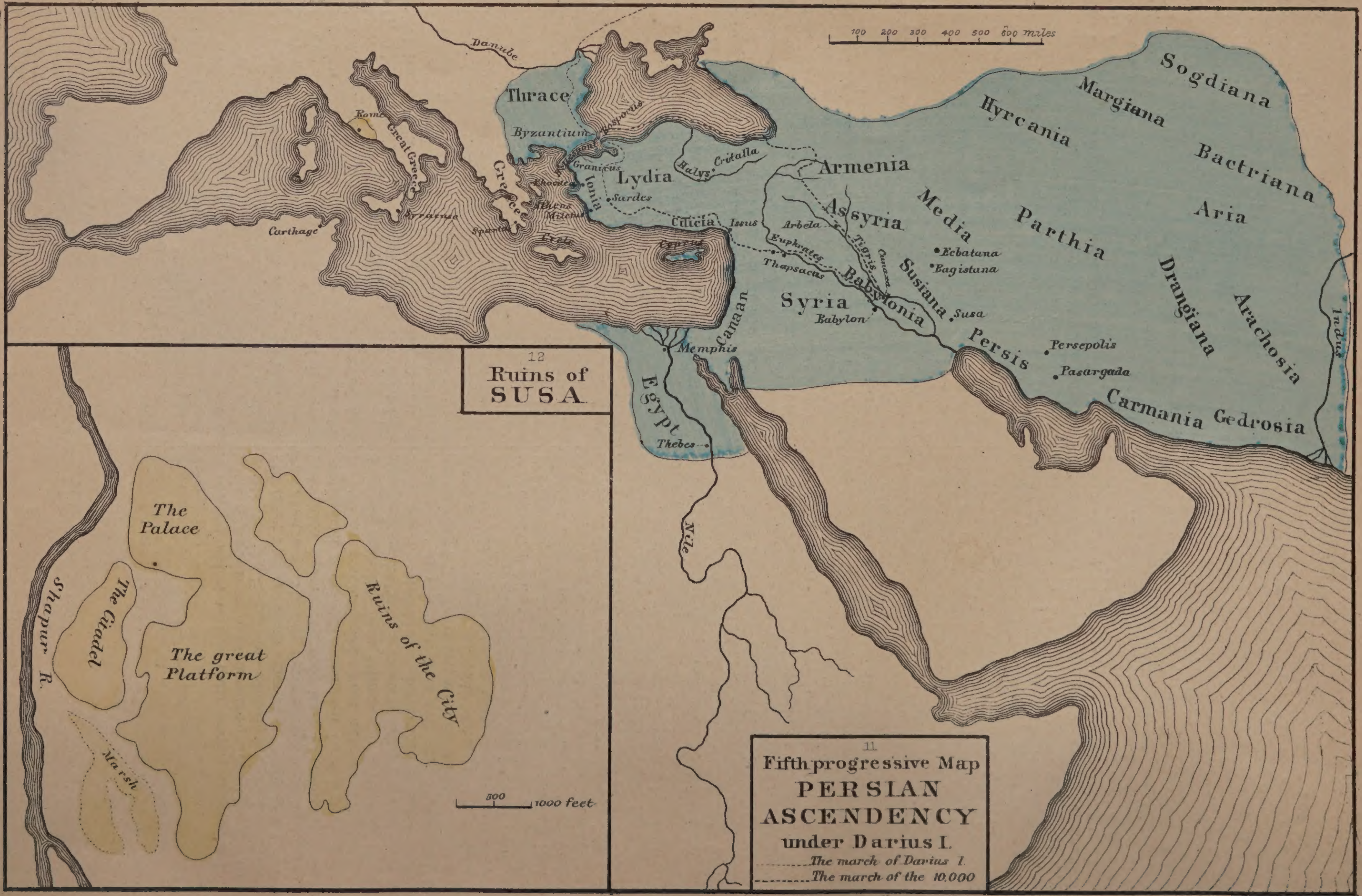
THE PERSIAN ASCENDENCY.

During the decay of the Assyrian power, the Aryan tribe of the Persians pushed its way to the gulf which still bears their name. They overthrew, in 549 B.C., the throne of Astyages, the ruler of Media. The Medes at once acknowledged the supremacy of the Persian leader, Cyrus. Lydia (544) and Babylonia (538) shared very soon the fate of the Median Empire, to which afterward, under the reign of Cambyses, were added Egypt (525) and Ethiopia. But during the long absence of Cambyses and the army in the Nile Valley the loosely-cemented empire began to fall to pieces. The revolt was headed by the Medic tribe of the Magians, one of whom, Gomates, seized the throne. But after a reign of eight months he was slain, and Darius, the son of Hystaspes, and probably heir-presumptive to the crown, was proclaimed King (521 B.C.). It cost Darius six years to reconquer the realm founded by Cyrus. Then at length he was free to organize the empire. He made it a homogeneous whole, with its centre at Susa. Here resided the monarch, the source of all authority. He governed the country through a highly centralized bureaucracy, the members of which owed their offices to him alone. He divided the empire into twenty-three Satrapies, communication being kept up between them by roads and posts, which all met in Susa.

At the head of each Satrapy was a civil governor (Satrap), generally connected with the King by blood or marriage. The troops of each Satrapy were commanded by a separate officer. Royal scribes were employed to send up reports of the Satraps. After having thus reorganized the empire left by Cambyses, the boundaries were extended. The Indus was first explored by a naval expedition under Skylax. This was followed by the conquest of the Punjaub. The Bosporus was bridged by Mandrocles and the Scythian coasts of the Black Sea were swept by the Persian army. Megabazus conquered Thrace and made Macedonia a tributary kingdom (513 B.C.).

The first check the Persian arms received was when they tried to punish Athens and Eretria, who had dared to lend their aid to the King's revolted subjects (the Ionians on the western coast of Asia Minor) and had borne a part in the burning of Sardes (500 B.C.). Mardonius was sent against the offending cities with a large army. But his fleet was wrecked off Mt. Athos and his land force surprised by the Thracians (492 B.C.). When, two years later, another Persian army was hurled against Athens, they were forced to retire by the genius of Miltiades. For three years Asia was now astir with preparations to crush Athens, that had dared to defy the Persian Empire. Fortunately for the doomed city, Egypt revolted at the moment when the preparations were completed (487 B.C.). Before this revolt could be suppressed, Darius I., the second founder of the Empire, died (486 B.C). His, son Xerxes I., led (480 B.C.) a huge and unwieldy host against Hellas. He succeeded in destroying Athens, and although no decisive battle had been gained by either side, Xerxes had lost all confidence in his troops and his troops in him. He returned to Asia with the remainder of his fleet and the greater part of the land forces. Mardonius was left behind, with three hundred thousand men, to complete the conquest. He was defeated at Platææ (479 B.C.). This was the first decisive victory of the whole war. The Persians were forced to withdraw from Europe. The islands of the Ægean, the Greek colonies of Asia Minor, the coasts of Thrace, and the command of the Hellespont, were one by one wrested from the Great King by Athenian skill and enterprise. Xerxes I. was (466 B.C.) succeeded by his son, Artaxerxes I. (466–425), under whose grandsons, Artaxerxes II. and Cyrus Minor, a terrible civil war broke out. Cyrus marched against his brother with thirteen thousand Greek mercenaries and one hundred thousand Asiatics. The battle of Cunaxa (401 B.C.) made an end to Cyrus' life and the civil war. The retreat of the remnant of the Greeks under Xenophon (the retreat of the ten thousand) became one of the great feats of history (400 B.C.). Artaxerxes II. survived the day of Cunaxa forty-two years. On his death he left to his son and successor, Artaxerxes III., a decaying empire. He was a prince of more vigor and spirit than any monarch since Darius Hystaspes, and the power, reputation and general prosperity of the Empire were greatly advanced during his reign. But he was poisoned (338 B.C.) by his vizier, Bogoas, who, after murdering all his brothers, raised Arses, youngest son of Artaxerxes III., to the throne.

Two years later, Arses, with all his children, was murdered by Bogoas, who now placed on the throne a personal friend of his, Codomannus, who took the name of Darius III. (336 B.C.). Two years later, Alexander of Macedon crossed the Hellespont with an army of hardly thirty-six thousand men. The Persians were beaten at the Granicus (336 B.C.), at Issus (333 B.C.), and finally at Arbela (331 B.C.). The last King Darius III. was murdered by the satrap Bessus, which murder was quickly followed by the reduction of the rest of the Persian Empire.



11

Fifth progressive Map

PERSIAN ASCENDENCY under Darius I.

……The march of Darius I.

------The march of the 10,000

12

Ruins of SUSA

HELLAS.

Hellas, in its widest acceptation, was the name given to all countries settled by the Hellenes. It included all branches of the Hellenic nation which had their language, manners, and culture in common, without regard to the position or extent of their abode.

Three different tribes were (since the 8th century B.C.) included in the common name of Hellenes. They were:

I. The Æolians, an Aryan race, from which sprung the Ionian and Dorian tribes. Twelve Æolian colonies were found on the north-west coast of Asia Minor.

II. That part of the Æolians, which, before historical times, had spread over the southern part of the Peloponnesus and the islands of the Ægean Sea, established themselves, finally, under the general name of Ionians (emigrants) on the more accessible parts of the western coasts of Asia Minor. After the Doric invasion of the Peloponnesus they were joined by other emigrants from their old home. They filled the estuary land of the four great rivers (Mæander, Cayster, Hermus and Caicus), which was called, after them, Ionia.

III. The Dorians, a tribe cognate with the Ionians, who in prehistoric times had settled in the Thessalian mountains. Since 1100 B.C. they began to migrate southward, and finally found permanent abodes in the south of the Peloponnesus. The Southern Cyclades, Crete, Rhodes, and the south-west coast of Asia Minor, were also occupied by them.

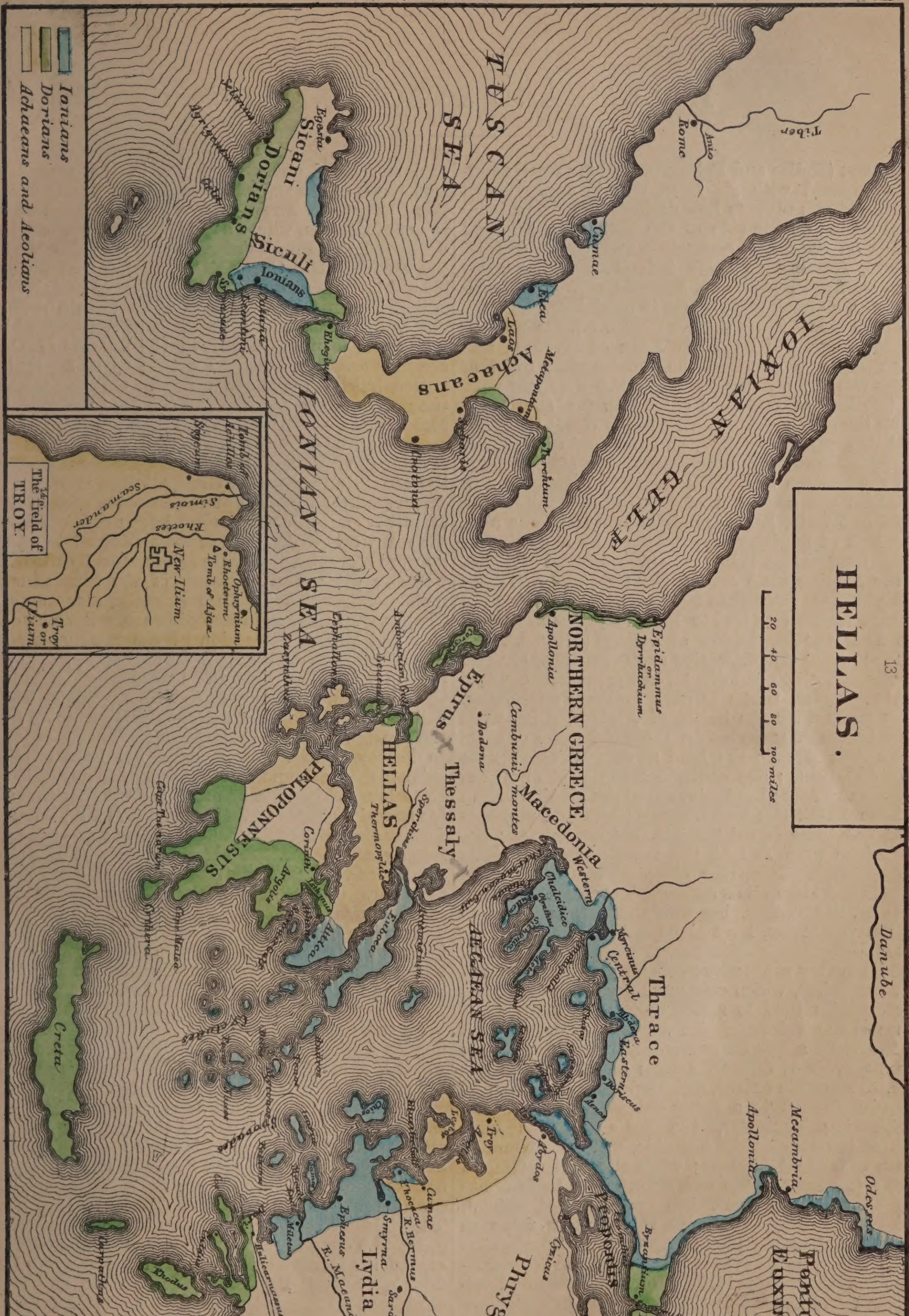
From the Æolian and Ionian coast of Asia Minor issued those mariners who explored the interior of the Black Sea, on the one hand, and the coast of Italy on the other. The name of the Ionian Sea, which was retained by the waters intervening between Epirus and Sicily, and that of the Ionian Gulf, the term by which the Greeks designated the Adriatic Sea, are memorials of the fact that the southern and eastern coast of Italy were, once upon a time, discovered by seafarers from Ionia. The oldest Greek settlement in Italy, Cumæ, was founded by the town of the same name on the coast of Asia Minor. Other Greeks soon followed in the path which those of Asia Minor had opened up. We may again distinguish three leading groups.

The original Ionian group, comprehended under the name of the Chalcidian towns, included in Italy Cumæ, with the other Greek settlements near Vesuvius and Rhegium. In Sicily were five Ionic towns, Zancle (afterward Messana), Naxos, Catana, Leontini, and Himera. The Achæan group embraced Sybaris and the greater part of the cities of Magna Græcia. The Dorian group comprehended the majority of the Sicilian colonies, while in Italy nothing belonged to it but Tarentum and its offset, Heraclea.

We are accustomed to call these Hellenes *Greeks*, a name applied to them by the Romans. They were a remarkably handsome, intelligent race, which had an invention of their own called *the City*, which city in sending forth branches gave birth to others of the same description. One of these, Miletus, produced three hundred towns, and colonized the entire coast of the Black Sea. Others did the same, the Mediterranean Sea being encircled with a garland of flourishing cities. Each of these cities formed a sovereign state, which consisted simply of a town with a beach or a surrounding border of farms. What was the life of this city? A citizen performed but little manual labor; he was generally supported, and always served, by slaves. He needed, however, but little help. He was very abstemious, olives, garlic, and a bit of dried fish constituting a meal. His wardrobe consisted of sandals, a small shirt, and a large mantle. His house was a narrow, ill-constructed cabin, which he only used for sleeping in. The citizen passed his life in the public thoroughfares, discussing the best means for preserving and aggrandizing his city, canvassing its alliances, treaties, laws, and constitution. His occupation consisted, substantially, of public business and war. He had to be a politician and warrior under penalty of death. For most of these cities, built and scattered along the Mediterranean shores, were surrounded by barbarians eager to prey upon them. The citizen, therefore, was obliged to be under arms, for the rights of war were atrocious; a vanquished city was often devoted to destruction. A man might any day see his property pillaged, himself and his sons enslaved, buried in mines, or compelled by the lash to turn a mill.

War, in those days, was a combat between man and man, in which the victory belonged to the strongest and best trained. Consequently, the essential thing to insure victory (which meant liberty) was to render each warrior the most resistant, the strongest, and the most agile body possible.

Therefore, young people passed the greater part of the day in the gymnasia, wrestling and racing. It was their aim to produce strong, robust bodies, the nimblest and most beautiful possible, and no system of education ever succeeded better in obtaining them. The Greek ideal of a citizen was a man of a fine stock and growth, well-proportioned, active, and accomplished in all physical exercises. The great national festivals of the Hellenes, the Olympian, Pythian, and Nemean games, were the great promoters of physical culture. The victorious athlete in the foot-race gave his name to the Olympiad; his praises were chanted by the greatest poets. On returning to his native city he was received in triumph, and his strength and agility became the pride of the place. Every athlete, once crowned, was entitled to a statue. The Hellenes considered the perfection of the human form as attesting divinity; they made their idol of it, they glorified it on earth by making a divinity of it in heaven. Out of this conception statuary is born, which adorned the sanctuaries with motionless, peaceful, august effigies in which human nature recognized its heroes and its gods. Statuary, accordingly, is the central art of Hellas; other arts are related to it, accompany it, or imitate it. No other art has so well expressed the national Hellenic life; no other was so cultivated or so popular.


HELLAS.
13
20 40 60 80 100 miles
🟦 Ionians
🟩 Dorians
☐ Achaeans and Aeolians
The field of TROY.
Sigeum
Tomb of Achilles
Scamander
Simois
Rhoetes
Ophrynium
Rhoeteum
Tomb of Ajax
New Ilium
Troy or Ilium
TUSCAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
IONIAN GULF
AEGEAN SEA
Pontus Euxinus
Propontis
Tiber
Anio
Rome
Cumae
Elea
Laos
Achaeans
Metapontum
Tarentum
Sybaris
Croton
Rhegium
Sicani
Dorians
Siculi
Ionians
Egesta
Selinus
Agrigentum
Gela
Syracuse
Leontini
Catana
Epidamnus or Dyrrhachium
Apollonia
NORTHERN GREECE
Epirus
Dodona
Cambunii montes
Macedonia
Thessaly
HELLAS
Thermopylae
Corcyra
Cephallenia
Zacynthus
Leucas
PELOPONNESUS
Corinth
Argolis
Attica
Euboea
Cythera
Creta
Rhodus
Cyclades
Chalcidice
Thrace
Danube
Mesembria
Apollonia
Odessus
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Abydos
Cyzicus
Phrygia
Lydia
Sardes
Smyrna
Phocaea
Cumae
R. Hermus
Ephesus
R. Maeander
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Chios
Lesbos
Troy
Carpathus

HELLAS AND PELOPONNESUS.

GREECE (Hellas and Peloponnesus) is a small country compared with its fame, and it appears still smaller if you observe how divided it is. The principal chains on one side of the sea, and the lateral chains on the other, separate a number of distinct valleys, forming so many independent districts—Bœotia, Argos, Messenia, Laconia, etc. To American eyes, a Greek state seems in miniature.

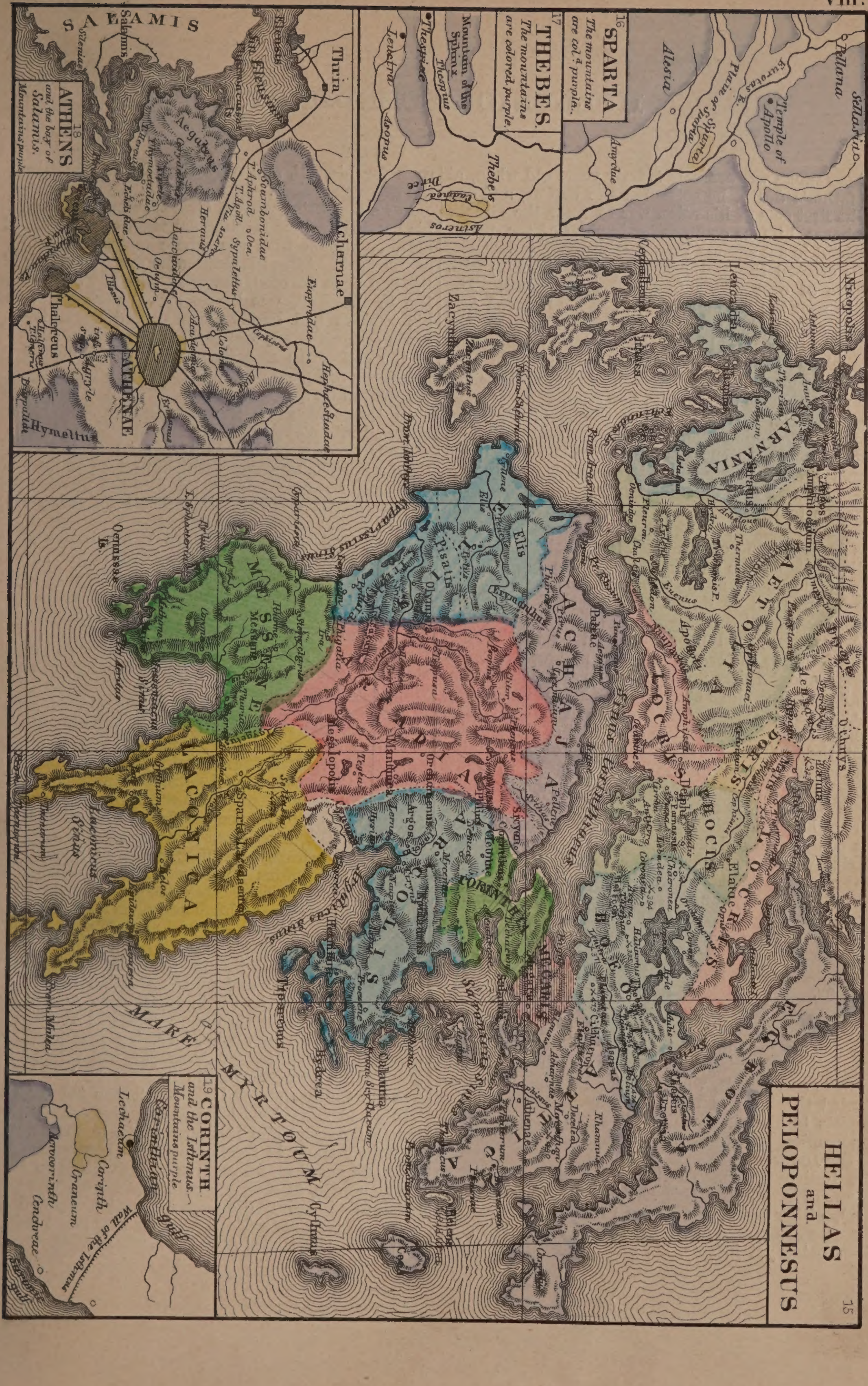
In the oldest times (before 1200 B.C.), the mightiest sovereign had been the King of Mycenæ, and when Mycenæ declined the neighboring town of Argos was the strongest state in the Peloponnesus, its territory at one time extending far southward along the east coast. The Spartans drove them out of their southern territory and then out of Cynuria. Sparta had now all the country between Mt. Taygetus and the Eastern Sea. The territory remaining now to Argos was a district of from 8 to 10 miles long and 4 or 5 wide, Laconia being about the same size. The loss of territory was followed by a decline of authority, and Sparta began to rank, instead of Argos, as the leading state among the Greeks. She kept this place for more than 500 years. But during the Persian attack (see text to Map VI.) Sparta, though she dealt the death-blow at Platææ (479 B.C.), had been slow and untrustworthy as the leader of Greece. To Athens, which had displayed the greatest courage and enterprise, that war gave political supremacy. Fifty years after the battle of Platææ, Athens was the mistress of more than a thousand miles of coast along Asia Minor; she held as dependencies more than 40 islands; she controlled the straits between Europe and Asia; her fleets ranged the Mediterrânean and the Black Sea uncontrolled; she had monopolized the trade of all the adjoining countries; her magazines were full of the most valuable objects of commerce. From the ashes of the Persian fire Athens had risen up so supremely beautiful that her temples, her statues, her works of art, in their exquisite perfection, have since had no parallel in the world.

But her very prosperity made her arrogant, haughty and tyrannical, which estranged her allies, and made her enemies bold to attack her. This was the real cause of the Peloponnesian war (431–404). Though in the main a war for supremacy between the two great powers of Greece, Athens and Sparta, it was also, to a certain extent, a struggle of principles, and likewise, though to a lesser extent, a war of races.

Speaking generally, the Ionian Greeks were banded together on the one side, and made common cause with the Athenians; while the Dorian Greeks, with a few remarkable exceptions, gave their aid to the Spartans. But political sympathy determined, to a greater degree than race, the side to which each state should attach itself. Athens and Sparta were respectively, in the eyes of the Greeks, the representatives of the two principles of democracy and oligarchy; and it was felt that according as the one or the other preponderated the cause of oligarchical or democratical government was in the ascendant. The result of the war was that Athens finally had to beg for peace. The Spartans held a council of all the confederates, who, after 27 years of warfare, had destroyed the Empire of Athens. On this occasion the Bœotians and Corinthians insisted that the city should be burned and all the people sold into slavery. But Sparta resolved that she never should suffer a city to be destroyed by the hands of Hellenes which had acted so noble a part in the defence of their common country. Athens ceased to be a political power, but destroyed she was not. On the contrary, the groves of the Lyceum and the Academy were the seat of a more glorious empire than the fate of arms can bestow or take away.

After the humiliation of Athens, the Spartans were the absolute masters of Greece. But it was soon discovered that, instead of the freedom promised by them, only another Empire had been established, and the many oppressions which the allies had to undergo were rendered still more intolerable by the overweening pride and harshness of the Spartan commanders. At this juncture Epaminondas arose at Thebes. In the confidence of peace, a Spartan general had gained possession of the Theban citadel. The seizure was declared unjust at Sparta, but nevertheless Sparta had kept it. Those who denounced the outrage were simply exiled from Thebes. These exiles, led by Pelopidas, delivered their country from the Spartans. From that moment the Thebans sought to destroy Sparta. They would not have attained this object by the numerical force of their armies, if Epaminondas had not been able to conquer them by his superior strategy. At Leuctra (371 B.C.) they lost forever the prize of the Peloponnesian war—the sovereignty of Greece. A second victory at Mantinea completed the ruin of the Spartan power, but Epaminondas was killed (362 B.C.). It was Epaminondas who had raised Thebes to its great power; there was no one like him left in Thebes, and after his death its authority quickly passed away. But Epaminondas had left behind an apt pupil, in the person of the young King of Macedonia, who had been educated by him while he resided as a hostage at Thebes. With the knowledge eagerly imbibed from Epaminondas Philip of Macedon combined what the latter wanted, namely, the power of a monarch and the boldness of an enterprising conqueror.

First gaining admittance as a member of the Greek Confederacy, he made use of this position to unite all the Greek states under his leadership, in order to absorb them in Macedonia. Athens at length took arms in the cause of expiring independence. The decisive battle was fought at Chæronea (338 B.C.). The victory remained to Philip, who, soon after, assembled a congress at Corinth, and was named General of the Confederate Greeks in the war to be undertaken against Persia. But in 336 B.C. he was assassinated at Ægæ, and that war was reserved for his greater son, Alexander.


HELLAS
and
PELOPONNESUS
15
16 SPARTA
The mountains are col.d purple.
17 THEBES
The mountains are colored purple.
18 ATHENS
and the bay of Salamis.
Mountains purple
19 CORINTH
and the Isthmus.
Mountains purple
SALAMIS
ATHENAE
Hymettus
Acharnae
Thebes
Sparta
Amyclae
Corinth
Lechaeum
Cenchreae
ACARNANIA
AETOLIA
LOCRIS
PHOCIS
BOEOTIA
ATTICA
EUBOEA
ACHAIA
ELIS
ARCADIA
ARGOLIS
CORINTHIA
MEGARIS
MESSENE
LACONICA
MARE MYRTOUM
Cythera

HELLENIC ASCENDENCY.

Alexander was scarcely twenty years old when, at his father's death, he ascended the throne, and one of the first acts of his reign was to force the Greeks to choose him as commander-in-chief of the forces destined to act against Persia.

He crossed the Hellespont (spring, 334 B.C.) with a force of over 30,000 foot and 4,000 horse. The battle near the Granicus (May, 334 B.C.) placed Asia Minor at his feet, and the death of Memnon, the only Persian general equal to the task of checking him, allowed him to advance into the heart of Persia. The Persian army was well-nigh annihilated in the pass of Issus (November, 333 B.C.).

Darius III. retreated across the Euphrates, but instead of pursuing him, Alexander turned south into Phœnicia. Damascus was taken, and the Phœnician seaports, except Tyre, surrendered without a blow.

This caused the Phœnician fleet employed by the Persians to break up, and the best chance of the Persians against Alexander was now gone. Tyre was besieged and captured. Egypt hailed him as a deliverer from the Persians. Here he founded the city of Alexandria at the western mouth of the Nile, the future rival of Rome. At length (331 B.C.) the decisive moment came.

A new army had been collected by the Persian King from his eastern dominions, and was strongly posted about thirty miles from the site of Nineveh, awaiting Alexander's attack. The battle was fought in October, at Gaugamela, twenty miles distant from Arbela, and ended with the total rout of the Persian host, the flight of Darius, and the fall of his Empire. Alexander returned in triumphal progress to Babylon, and went from thence in imperial pomp to Susa. Here he gave his army a rest, and carried out one part of his great scheme for the permanent union of the conquerors and the conquered by intermarriage. Darius was then pursued, first to Ecbatana, next to Rhagæ, and Bactria, where the hapless monarch was seized and finally murdered by the satrap Bessus.

The mysterious East still alluring him on, Alexander, exploring, conquering, and founding cities, at last reached the river Hyphasis (327 B.C.), where his army refused to proceed farther in the unknown regions. But instead of retracing his steps, he built vessels and descended the Indus, and thus arrived at the Indian Ocean.

From here the fleet, under Nearchus, sailed through the Persian Gulf to the mouth of the Euphrates and Tigris, while Alexander himself accompanied the bulk of the army through the Iranian deserts to Babylon, which he made the capital of his Empire, which now now reached from the Adriatic to the Indus, and from the steppes of Central Asia to the Indian Ocean. In the midst of the immense labors of regulating this Empire, he perished (323 B.C.), either by poison or by intemperance, having scarcely completed his thirty-second year. His children being yet infants, his chief generals provided each for himself, and only thought of conciliating the greedy soldiery.

For a few brief years a Greek ruler had held in his hand the whole intellectual vigor of the Hellenic race, combined with the whole material resources of the East. After his death, the work to which his life had been devoted, the establishment of Hellenism in the East, was by no means destroyed; but his Empire had barely been united when it was again dismembered, and amid the constant quarrels of the different states that were formed out of its ruins, the diffusion of Greek culture in the East was prosecuted on a reduced scale.

In the course of time Alexander's Empire was changed into a system of Helleno-Asiatic states.

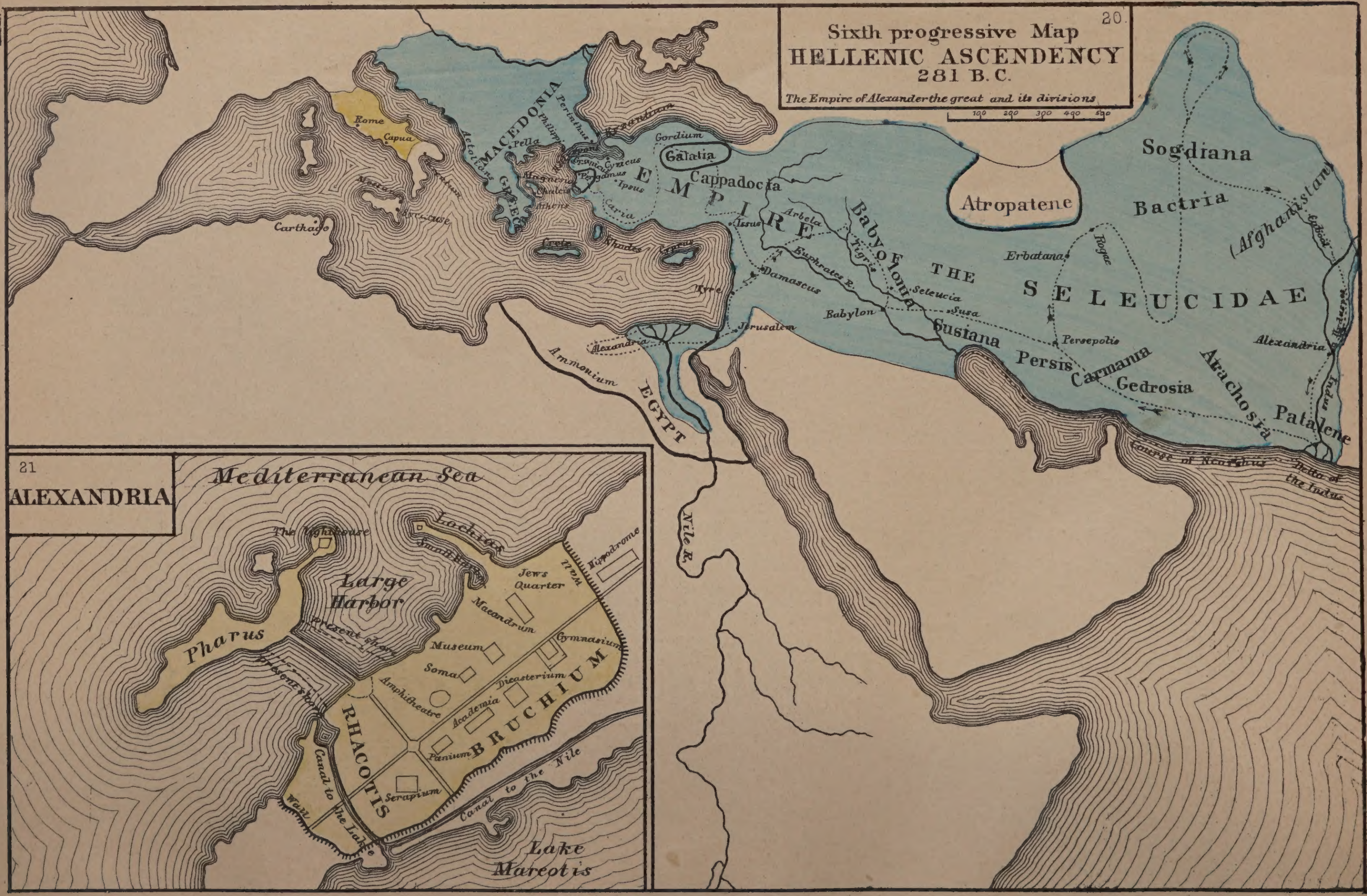
After the disappearance (281 B.C.) of the short-lived Kingdom of Thrace, which, under Lysimachus, embraced not only Thrace, but also the western half of Asia Minor, there remained the following Hellenic States:

MACEDONIA (capital, Pella), a military state, compact in form, and with its finances in good order. Greece was in general dependent on it, and its towns received Macedonian garrisons; especially the three important fortresses of Demetrias, in Magnesia, Chalcis, in Eubœa, and Corinth, on the Isthmus, "*the three fetters of the Hellenes.*" But the strength of the state lay, above all, in its original domain, the province of Macedonia.

ASIA, or the Empire of the Seleucidæ (capital, Seleucia), was nothing but Persia superficially remodelled and Hellenized; a rather loose aggregate of states in various degrees of dependence, of insubordinate Satrapies, and of half-free Greek cities.

EGYPT, or the Empire of the Ptolemies (capital, Alexandria), formed a consolidated and united state, in which the intelligent state-craft of the first Ptolemies, skilfully availing itself of ancient national and religious precedent, had established an absolute government. They drew the whole traffic between India and the Mediterranean from the Phœnician ports to Alexandria, and made Egypt the first commercial state of the world.

A series of small independent states, stretching from the southern end of the Caspian Sea to the Hellespont, filled the whole of northern Asia Minor. The most characteristic among them was Atropatene, the true asylum of ancient Persian manners, over which the expedition of Alexander had swept without leaving a trace. In the interior of Asia Minor was the Celtic state of Galatia. There three Celtic tribes had settled, without abandoning either their native language and manners or their constitution and their trade as freebooters. In consequence of bold and successful measures of opposition to these Gallic hordes, Attalus, a wealthy citizen of Pergamus, received the royal title from his native city and bequeathed it to his posterity. This new court was, in miniature, what that of Alexandria was on a grand scale.



20.

Sixth progressive Map

HELLENIC ASCENDENCY

281 B.C.

The Empire of Alexander the great and its divisions

21

ALEXANDRIA

ITALY—EARLY ROME.

Four groups of peoples are to be regarded as having been original dwellers in Italy, before the Greeks came by sea, in the South, and the Celts by land, in the North. On the Adriatic coast we find various Illyrian tribes; on the North-western coast, Ligurian tribes. The Etruscan (or Ras) formed the third people. Their first abode in Italy was in the valley of the Po, whence they were driven by Celts to the land which still bears their name. Another Tuscan league existed in Campania. The remaining part of Italy was occupied by a number of tribes closely connected with one another in language. These were the Umbri, Latini, and Sabini. The nations of this group are clearly to be regarded as having been the last to come into the peninsula by land before the dawn of history. Their movement southward did not come to an end until about 400 B.C., at the time of the conquest of Campania, Lucania and Bruttium by the Samnites. Its further development is to be seen in the political annexation and linguistic assimilation, first of the whole of Italy, then of Western and Central Europe, by one of its tribes which was originally confined to very narrow borders, the Latins. Thirty cantons formed the Latin league, the political centre of which was the town of Alba. About 14 miles up from the mouth of the river Tiber arose, at a wholly unknown time, and under wholly unknown circumstances, ROME. The earliest boundaries of the Roman community were in the landward direction, about five miles distant from the town; and it was only toward the coast that they extended as far as the mouth of the Tiber. Larger and smaller tribes surrounded Rome. It seems to have been at the expense of these neighbors that the earliest extensions of the Roman territory took place. The Latin communities on the Upper Tiber and between the Tiber and Arno appear to have forfeited their independence in very early times. By these conquests the Roman territory was probably extended to about 190 square miles. Another very early achievement of the Roman arms was the conquest and destruction of Alba, the ancient sacred metropolis of Latium.

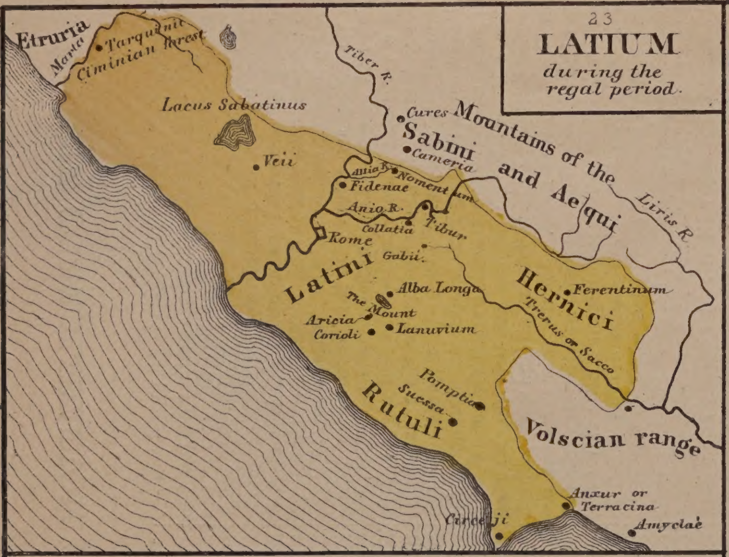
Rome gained, in consequence of that event, the right to preside at the Latin festival—a right which was the basis of the hegemony of Rome over the whole Latin Confederacy.

All this happened during the regal period, the great achievement of which was the establishment of the hegemony of Rome over Latium. The expulsion of the Kings in 510 B.C. made for a while an end to the expansion of Rome. Her lands were ravaged, and the Tuscans besieged, and seem even to have taken, Rome. But this danger from Etruria induced the Latin nation to adhere to the continued recognition of the Roman supremacy after the expulsion of the Kings.

Spurius Cassius enabled the Romans to triumph over their enemies by his renewal, consolidation, and extension of the ancient league between Rome and Latium, and (since 486 B.C.) the Hernici. This league enabled its members not only to maintain, but also to extend on all sides, their power. Their conquests were at the expense of the Sabines, Æqui, and Volscians. The Sabines were soon conquered, but the struggle with the Æqui and Volscians lasted more than a century.

The league had also to watch their old enemy, the Etruscans. Twelve miles to the north of Rome was the powerful Etruscan city of Veii. A furious war raged between the rivals from 483–474 B.C., at the end of which Rome only recovered its ground. After an armistice of 400 months, the war was renewed (445 B.C.), and the Romans recovered Fidenæ. Another armistice of 200 months was made in 425, on the expiration of which Rome resolved to end this war by the conquest of Veii. It succumbed in 396 B.C. to the persevering and heroic energy of Marcus Furius Camillus. Veii was destroyed. The statement that the two bulwarks of the Etruscan nation, Melpum and Veii, yielded on the same day, the former to the Celts, the latter to the Romans, may be merely a melancholy legend, but it at any rate involves a deep historical truth. The double assault, on the north and on the south, and the fall of the two frontier strongholds, were the beginning and the end of the great Etruscan nation.

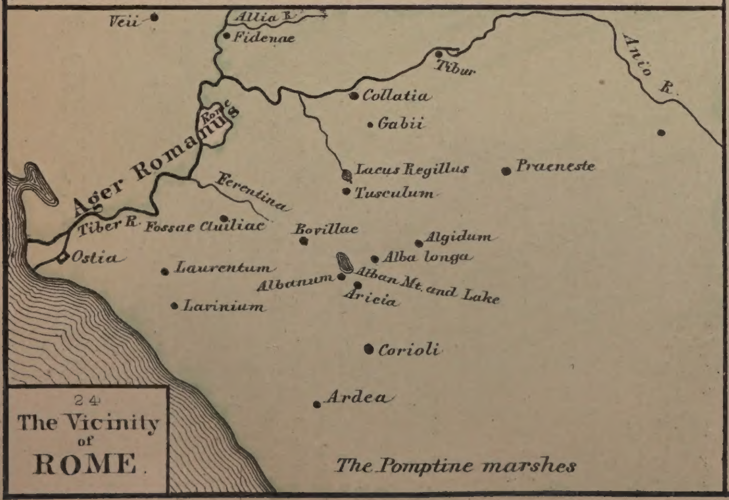
The fall of Melpum gave the Celts the whole left bank of the Po, and Celtic swarms rapidly overflowed northern Italy and besieged Clusium. So humbled were the Etruscans that they invoked help from their bitter enemies, the Romans. The Romans declined to send assistance, but despatched envoys, who sought to impose upon the Celts by haughty language. When this failed, they thought they might with impunity violate the law of nations in dealing with barbarians. They fought in the rank of the Clusines, and a Gallic officer was stabbed by a Roman envoy. Redress being refused, the Celts broke up the siege of Clusium and marched on Rome. At the Allia (July 18, 390 B.C.) they met the Roman army, which was not only totally defeated, but the greater portion was carried to the right bank of the Tiber. The capital was thus left to the mercy of the invaders, who marched through the open gates into Rome. After murdering all they met with, they burned the city (390 B.C.). The Celts remained for 7 months beneath the rock of the capitol, when they received information as to the Veneti having invaded their recently acquired territory on the Po, and were thus induced to accept the ransom money that was offered to secure their retreat. The city soon arose out of its ruins, and Rome stood in her old commanding position.



23

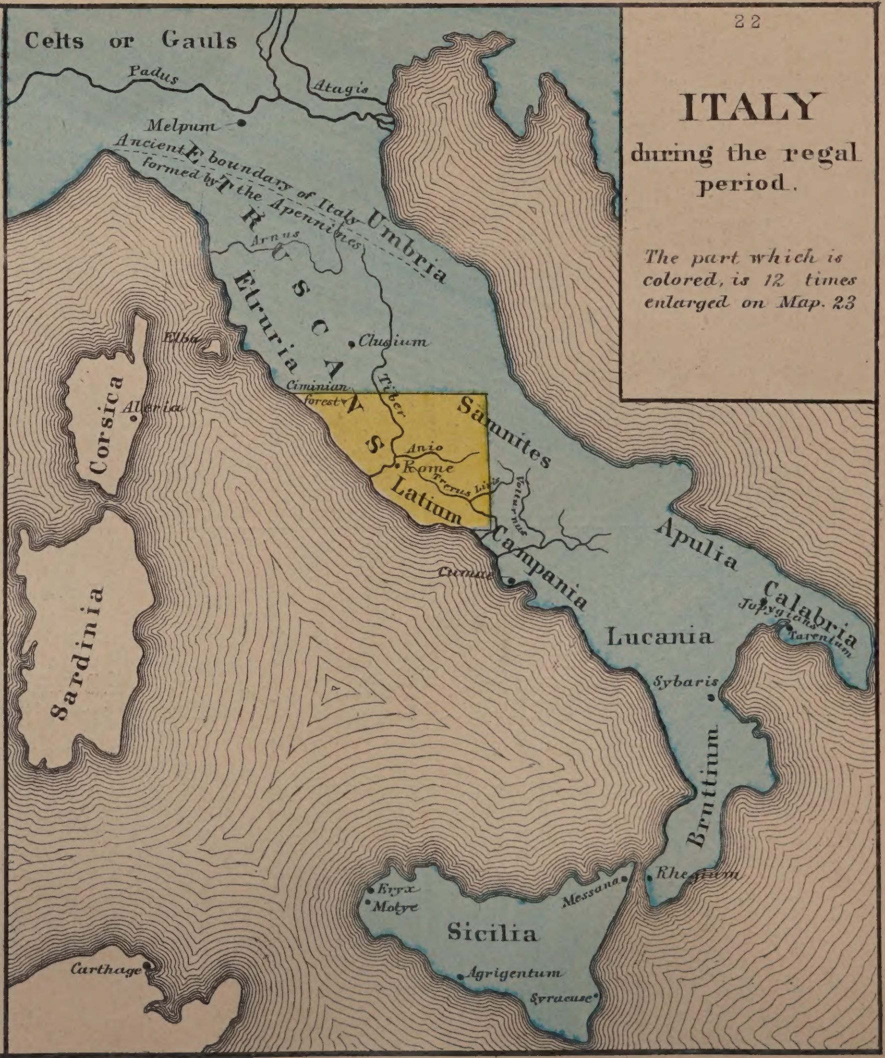
LATIUM

during the regal period.



24

The Vicinity of ROME.



22

ITALY

during the regal period.

The part which is colored, is 12 times enlarged on Map. 23

THE CONSOLIDATION OF CENTRAL ITALY.

One result of the Celtic invasions had been the extension of the Samnite league, which was for the mountain tribes what the Latin league was for the plain. One Samnite horde after the other fell upon the Greek colonies in Lucania and Campania, which, weakened as they had been by the Celtic attack, were unable to resist the barbarians. But Samnium lacked a leading community, and consequently there was no policy of conquest. Every Samnite horde which had sought and found new settlements pursued a path of its own. They filled a large space, while yet they showed no disposition to make it thoroughly their own. Instead of Samnitizing the Hellenes, they became Hellenized. The old mountain home of the Samnites alone remained unaffected by these innovations, which powerfully contributed to loosen still more the bond of national unity, which from the first was loose. It was this variance between the Samnites of the plain and the Samnites of the mountains that led the Romans over the Liris and became the immediate cause of the Samnite wars. It was nothing else but a gigantic struggle, lasting more than fifty years, between the mountain and the plain. The question at issue was, whether Italy should become united and civilized, or would be doomed to remain a loose collection of shepherd tribes. The first Samnite war was soon over (343–341 B.C.), and had not much result; both sides were willing to make peace, especially Rome, for she was just then afraid of her allies, the Latins, who had asked in vain to be admitted to the full rights of Roman citizens. The struggle lasted nearly three years (340–338 B.C.), and ended with the dissolution of the Latin league. Instead of the one treaty between Rome on the one hand and the Latin confederacy on the other, perpetual alliances were entered into between Rome and the several confederate towns. The Latin league was transformed into a Latin state. Twelve years after the pacification of Latium broke out the second or great Samnite war (326–304 B.C.). It was a general uprising of the Italian nations against consolidated Latium, Etruscans and Celts joining the Samnites. The fall of the chief stronghold of Samnium (Bovianum, 305 B.C.) terminated the twenty-two years' war. The victory of Rome was complete, and she turned it to full account.

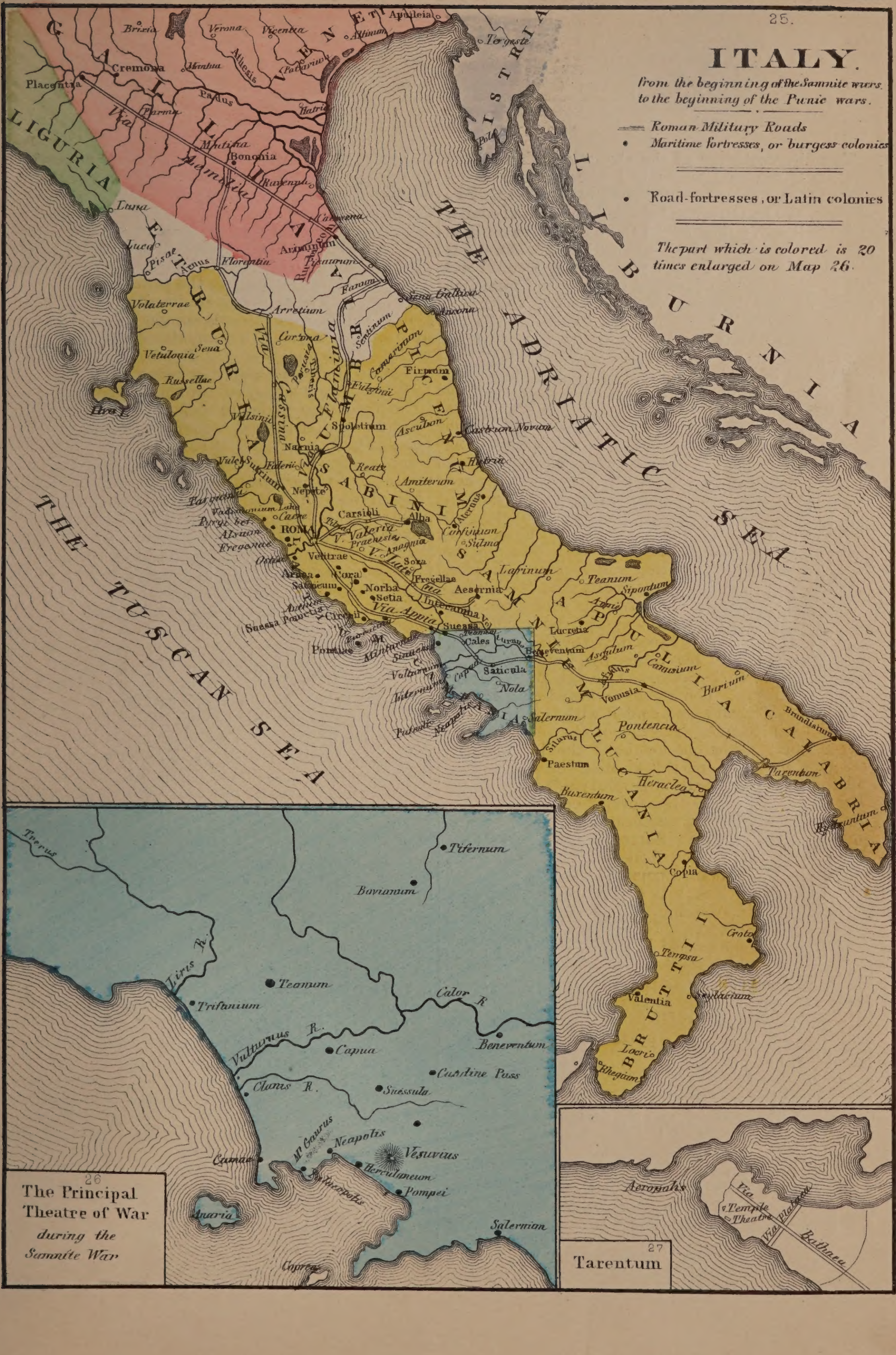
The region which separated Samnium from Etruria was penetrated by two military roads, both of which were secured by new fortresses. The northern road covered the line of the Tiber, the southern ran along the Fucine lake. The Appian road secured Apulia and Campania.

These roads served to connect together a series of road-fortresses (Latin colonies). By their means Samnium would be in a few years entirely surrounded, isolated from the rest of Italy, and completely in the grasp of Rome. Such a peace was more ruinous than the most destructive war. With the help of Celts and Etruscans, Samnium, five years after the peace, renewed the struggle (Third Samnite war, 299–290 B.C.), which culminated in the decisive Roman victory of Sentinum (295 B.C.). Five years afterward Samnium begged for peace and became a subject-ally of Rome. Rome was now mistress of Central Italy. She had subdued the Samnites and Etruscans, and had driven back the Gauls, and there were only some Greek cities in the South to stand against her. Among them was wealthy Tarentum, old treaties with which prohibited Roman ships of war from passing the promontory of Lacinium. A Roman war fleet on its way to the Umbrian coast, overtaken by storms, sought refuge in the harbor of Tarentum. The Tarentines attacked the vessels, capturing five. A Roman embassy which came to demand reparation being grossly insulted, a Roman army advanced into the Tarentine territory. The Tarentines called to their assistance Pyrrhus of Epirus, the renowned leader of mercenaries, who landed (280 B.C.) with twenty-five thousand troops and twenty elephants. For the first time the Roman militia had to fight with regular soldiers—the dreaded Macedonian phalanx. The Romans were conquered by tactics, but fled only when Pyrrhus launched his elephants (the Lucanian oxen) upon their weakened ranks (battle of Heraclea, 280 B.C.). He conquered the Romans again at Ausculum in Apulia (279 B.C.), but was finally completely defeated at Beneventum (275 B.C.). Rome had expelled the Hellenic foreigner from Italian soil. It is more than probable that the repelling of the Celtic and Hellenic invasions played an important part as a reason for centralizing the military resources of Italy in the hands of the Romans. When they took the lead in the great national struggle and compelled the Etruscans, Latins, Sabellians, Apulians, and Hellenes alike to fight under their standards, that unity obtained firm consolidation and recognition in state law; and the name Italia, which originally pertained only to the modern Calabria, was gradually transferred to the whole of the peninsula south of the Apennines. The earliest boundaries of this great armed confederacy, led by Rome, reached, on the western coast, as far as the mouth of the Arnus, on the east, as far as the Æsis.

The new Italy had thus become a political unity; it was also in the course of becoming a national unity. Already the ruling Latin nationality had assimilated to itself the Sabines and Volscians, and had scattered isolated Latin communities (the Latin colonies or road-fortresses) over all Italy. The great southern highway, which acquired, in the fortress of Beneventum, a new station, intermediate between Capua and Venusia, was continued as far as the seaports of Tarentum and Brundusium, and firmly established the dominion of Rome in the interior of Lower Italy.

These germs were merely developed when, subsequently, the Latin language became the mother-tongue of everyone entitled to Roman citizenship.

The singular cohesion which that confederation subsequently exhibited under the severest shocks stamped their great work with the seal of success.



25.

ITALY.

from the beginning of the Samnite wars to the beginning of the Punic wars.

- *Roman Military Roads*
- • *Maritime fortresses, or burgess colonies*
- • Road-fortresses, or Latin colonies

The part which is colored is 20 times enlarged on Map 26.

26

The Principal Theatre of War *during the Samnite War*

27

Tarentum

THE FIRST AND SECOND PUNIC WARS.

THE circumstances of the struggle with Pyrrhus and the Southern Italians had forced Rome to become to some extent a maritime power. As mistress of Italy, she had to protect the exposed Italian coasts.

Accordingly, a fleet began to be formed as early as 338 B.C., which received constant additions. But this new tendency on the part of Rome could not fail to provoke the jealousy of the chief maritime power of the Western Mediterranean, Carthage, whose policy it had always been to oppose the establishment of any naval rival in the waters which she regarded as her own. Thus, unfriendly feelings, arising out of a consciousness of clashing interests, had for some time been growing up between Carthage and Rome, and nothing was needed but a decent pretext in order that the two lukewarm friends should become open and avowed enemies. The pretext was not long wanting. The Mamertines of Messana being threatened with destruction by the combined Carthaginians and Syracusans, applied for help to Rome, which at once invaded Sicily, and by an act of treachery made herself mistress of the disputed port. War with Carthage necessarily followed, a war for the possession of Sicily and for maritime supremacy in the Mediterranean.

The Carthaginian empire was in its constitution not unlike that of Rome. Both had grown out of one city as their centre; both ruled over allies of alien and of kindred race; both had sent out numerous colonies, and through them had spread their nationality.

What, then, was the decisive force which, after the long trembling of the balance between Rome and Carthage, turned the scale? It was the homogeneousness of the material out of which the Roman state was constructed, as compared with the varied elements which formed the Carthaginian.

The Romans were Latins, of the same blood as the Sabines and all the other races which formed the principal stock of the population of Italy. They were related in blood with the Greeks of Southern Italy, and they harmonized in a great measure with the Etruscans in their mode of life, in political thought and religious rites. But the Carthaginians were strangers in Africa, and they remained so to the end.

The first Punic war lasted twenty-three years (264–241 B.C.). The long duration of the struggle showed that the combatants were not unequally matched. The strength of Rome lay in the warlike qualities of her citizens and subjects. Carthage was immeasurably superior in wealth. In this first war several great naval battles were fought (in 260 B.C. at Mylæ, in 256 B.C. at Ecnomos), and the decision was brought about by the victory of Catulus near the Ægatian Islands (241 B.C.).

The prize of the war, the beautiful island of Sicily, was gained by the victorious Romans. But this was not the only result. The superiority of Rome over Carthage was shown, and the "*war concerning Sicily*," great and important as it was, was only the prelude to the greater and more important struggle which established the dominion of Rome on the ruins of Carthage.

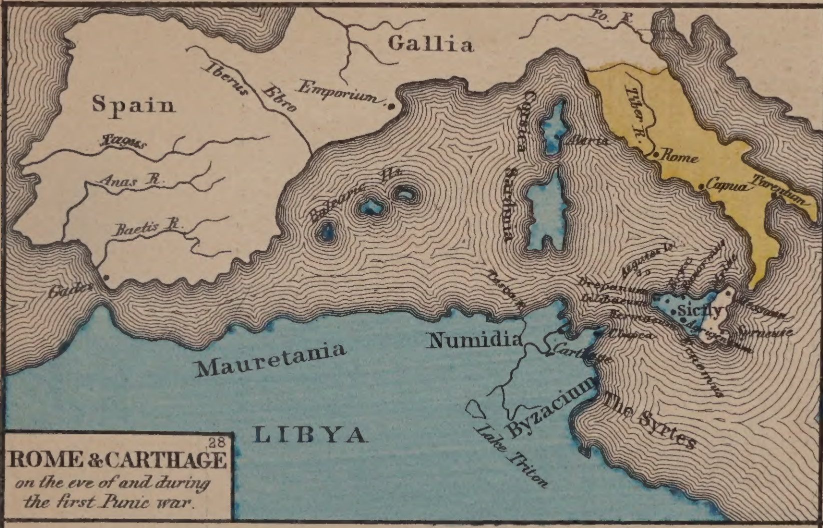
This greater struggle broke out twenty-three years after the first Punic war, and lasted seventeen years (218–201 B.C.). This second Punic war was not about a disputed boundary, about the possession of a province or some partial advantage; it was a struggle for existence—for supremacy or destruction. It was to decide whether the Hellenic civilization of the West or the Semitic civilization of the East was to be established in Europe.

The plan of the Romans, to land their main army in Africa while a second army should engage the Carthaginian troops in Spain, was thwarted by Hannibal's daring overland expedition to Italy.

Crossing the Pyrenees with 50,000 foot, 9,000 horse, and 37 elephants, Hannibal traversed Southern Gaul to the ford of the Rhone, near Orange. Then he went along the eastern side of the Rhone as far as Vienna, where he turned eastward to follow the course of the Isère. Crossing the Little St. Bernard, he descended into Italy along the course of the Dorea Baltea. Unvarying success accompanied him from the first moment of his setting foot in Italy. He beat the Romans on the Ticinus and the Trebia in 218 B.C., and again at the Trasimene Lake in 217. His success rose higher and higher, until it culminated in the crowning victory at Cannæ (216 B.C.). But from this time the vigor of Hannibal's attack relaxed; its force seemed spent. For Hannibal those difficulties began which are inseparable from a campaign in a foreign country, at a great distance from the native resources. He remained the terror of the Romans, but it became now more and more apparent that the resources of Rome were superior to those of her enemies. Gradually she rose from her fall.

Yielding on no point, she kept up vigorously the defensive against Hannibal, while she passed to the offensive in the other theatres of war, in Spain, Sicily, and finally in Africa; and, having thoroughly reduced and weakened the strength of her adversary, she dealt a last and decisive blow against Hannibal himself at Zama (202 B.C.). Hannibal returned, after an absence of thirty-six years, to the city of his birth, not as a triumphant victor, but as a defeated general, to tell his fellow-citizens that not only the battle, but the war, was lost.

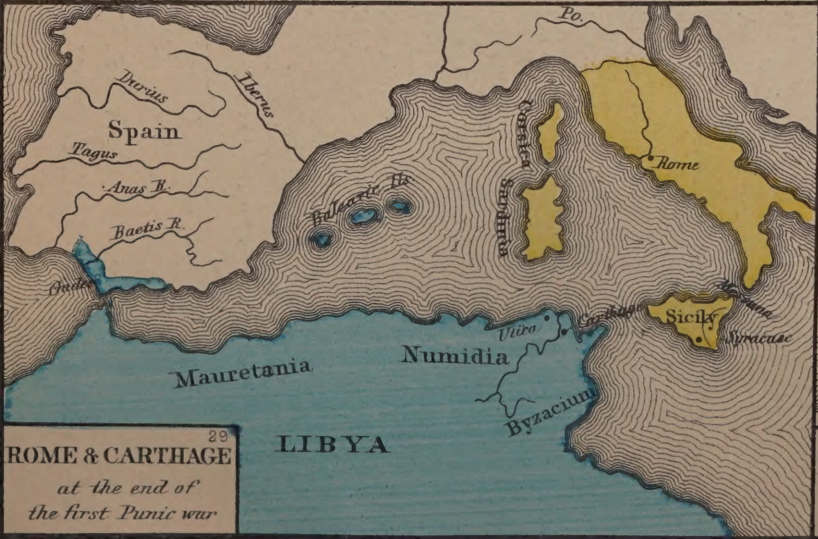
The immediate results of the second Punic war were the conversion of Spain into two Roman provinces; the union of the hitherto dependent kingdom of Syracuse with the Roman province of Sicily; the establishment of a Roman instead of the Carthaginian protectorate over the most important Numidian chiefs; and lastly, the conversion of Carthage from a powerful commercial state into a defenceless mercantile town. In other words, it established the uncontested hegemony of Rome over the western region of the Mediterranean.



28

ROME & CARTHAGE

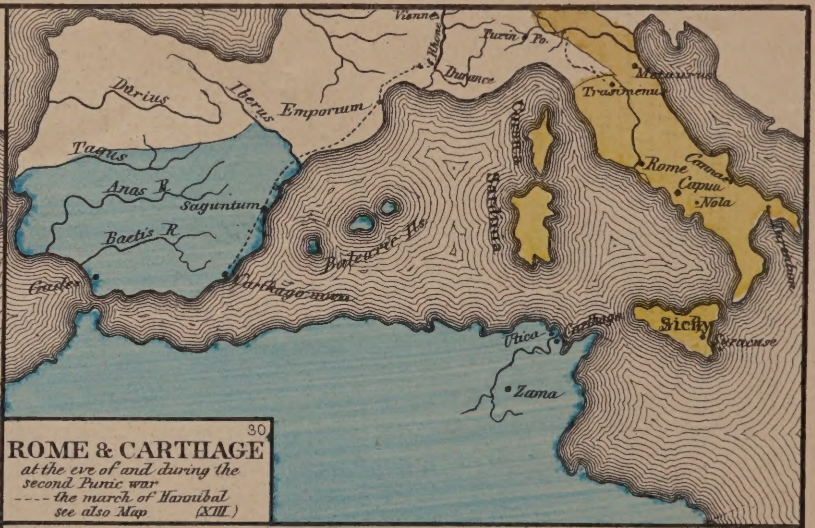
on the eve of and during the first Punic war.



29

ROME & CARTHAGE

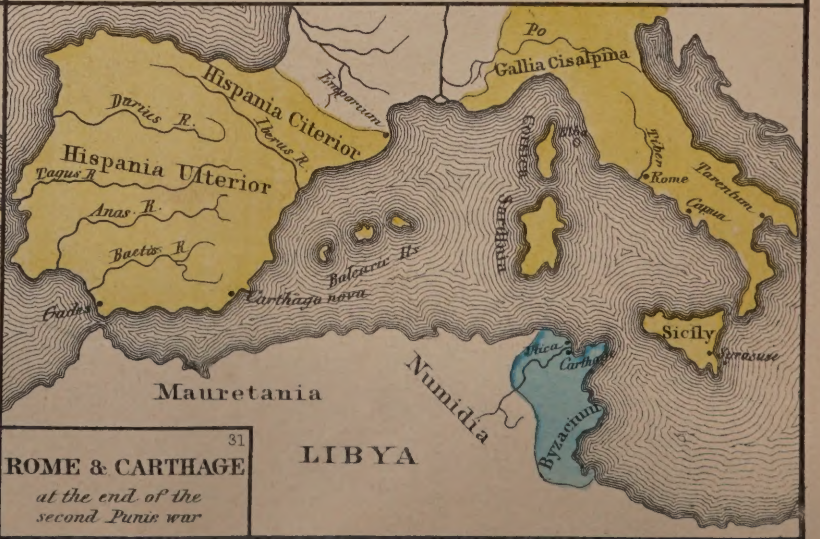
at the end of the first Punic war



30

ROME & CARTHAGE

at the eve of and during the second Punic war
---- the march of Hannibal
see also Map (XIII)



31

ROME & CARTHAGE

at the end of the second Punic war

THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE WESTERN BASIN OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

200–50 B.C.

In the very year of the conclusion of peace with Carthage (201 B.C.) Rome recommenced hostilities in the plain of the Po, where the Gauls had, ever since the invasion of Hannibal, defied the Roman authority and maintained their independence. It was only by energetic and repeated efforts, and by skilfully fomenting the divisions among the tribes, that Rome once more established her dominion over this fair and fertile region, forcing the Gauls to become her reluctant subjects (191 B.C). This conquest was followed by a fresh arrangement of the territory. The line of the Po was taken as that which should bound the strictly Roman possessions. Beyond the Po, the Gallic communities, though allowed to retain their existence and their native governments, were especially required to allow no fresh immigrants to settle on the southern side of the Alpine chain.

But the greatest undertaking of this period was to remove out of the way the city which, however reduced, was still felt to be Rome's sole rival in the western world, and to assume the actual government of a new dependency in a new continent. This determination was in no way forced upon Rome by circumstances, but was decided upon as the course best calculated to advance Roman interests.

After the second Punic war Rome had taken under her protection Massinissa, King of Numidia.

The time from the peace of 201 B.C. to the breaking out of the war of extermination in 149 B.C. was filled with uninterrupted attacks of Massinissa against the integrity of the Carthaginian possessions. The fact, that he was useful to the Romans in their wars in Spain, encouraged him in the belief that he could act as he chose. He continually advanced fresh claims upon the Carthaginian territory, and thus forced the unhappy city again and again to have recourse to the arbitration of Rome. The embassy which in 157 B.C. was despatched by the Senate to inquire into the affairs of Africa contained among its members the most uncompromising enemy of Carthage, Marcus Porcius Cato. The Carthaginians appealed to their just rights, guaranteed by treaty. Massinissa, on the contrary, declared his readiness to accept unconditionally the decision of the Romans, whatever it might be. The Carthaginian appeal to their rights appeared to Cato in the light of presumptuous defiance, and he determined to humble them to the dust. With astonishment and jealous envy he had observed the flourishing condition of their country. Though they had lost their foreign possessions, Carthage was still a town full of life and wealth. The port was thronged with shipping, and the streets and market-places were crowded with a busy multitude. The country was cultivated like a garden, and signs were everywhere visible of wealth and prosperity. He returned to Rome with the firm conviction that Carthage must be swept from the face of the earth, if Rome was to continue to exist. This policy found allies in the mighty influence of the Roman bankers and great capitalists, on whom, after the destruction of the rich moneyed and mercantile city, its inheritance would necessarily devolve. The desired occasion was soon found. The Carthaginians, having been unable to procure from Rome any reparation for several losses of territory, which they had sustained at the hands of Massinissa, finally took up arms themselves. The Roman Senate promptly declared this a breach of the peace. Two Roman armies landed at Utica, and the consuls required the disarming of the city. They humbly submitted. But when ordered to abandon their city and make a new settlement ten miles from the sea, the Carthaginians resolved on a desperate resistance. With the greatest sacrifices on the part of all the inhabitants, without regard to rank, age, or sex, new equipments were provided. Weapons were manufactured day and night. A new fleet was built in the inner harbor, and the first attack of the Romans was manfully repulsed.

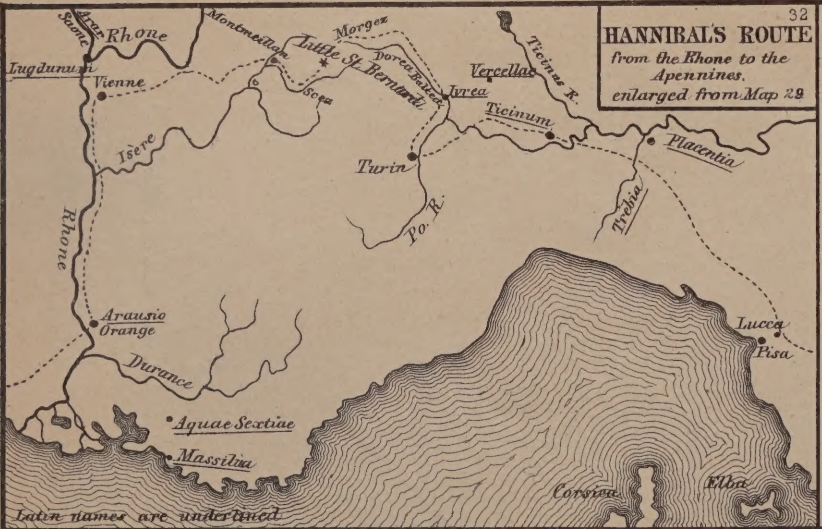
When the third year of the war was drawing to a close Carthage was completely blockaded by land and sea, and Scipio could suspend his operations, leaving famine and pestilence to complete what he had begun. In the beginning of the spring of 146 B.C. the city was captured. But not until the seventh day after the Romans had entered the town, did the wretched remnant of the Carthaginian people surrender. Fifty thousand men, women, and children were carried off as prisoners. The conquered town was now given up to plunder and then consigned to the flames. The plough was drawn over the site of destroyed Carthage, and a solemn curse was pronounced against anyone who should ever undertake to build a new town on that spot.

The greater part of the Carthaginian territory was joined to Utica, which now became the capital of the Roman province of Africa. The Numidian Kingdom was not enlarged. It was left to internal disputes which rendered it a safe neighbor.

Twenty-five years after the destruction of Carthage Southern Gaul was conquered (121 B.C.), and that new "Province" was formed whereto the title has ever since adhered as a proper name—*Provence.*

Three years later (118 B.C.) the troubles began in Africa which led to the Jugurthine war and the final absorption of the Numidian Kingdom.

This war first brought prominently into notice the two great party leaders, Marius and Sulla. Scarcely was it ended when a real danger threatened Rome from the barbarians of the North, a danger from which Marius with difficulty saved her. About a century after the destruction of Carthage Rome was undisputed mistress of the western basin of the Mediterranean.



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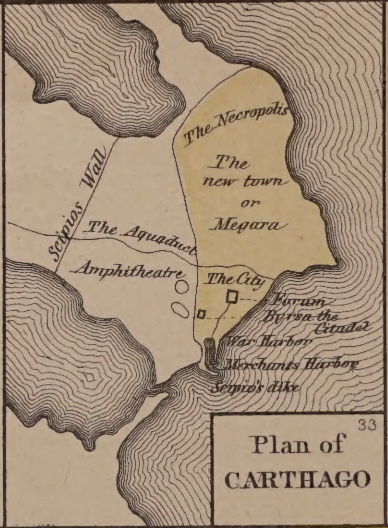
HANNIBAL'S ROUTE from the Rhone to the Apennines, enlarged from Map 29



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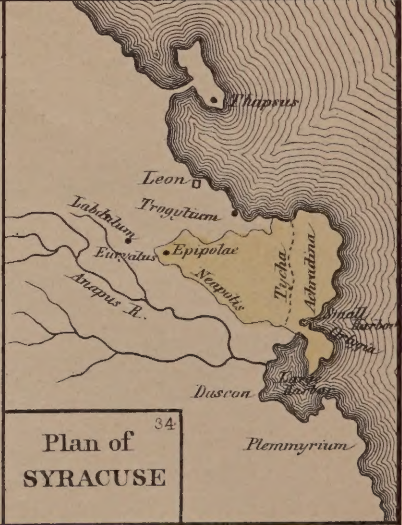
Plan of CARTHAGO



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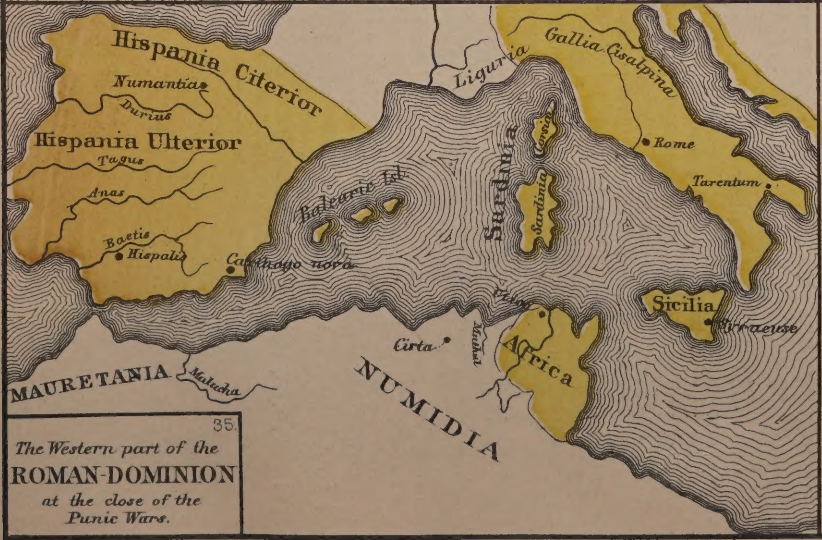
Plan of SYRACUSE



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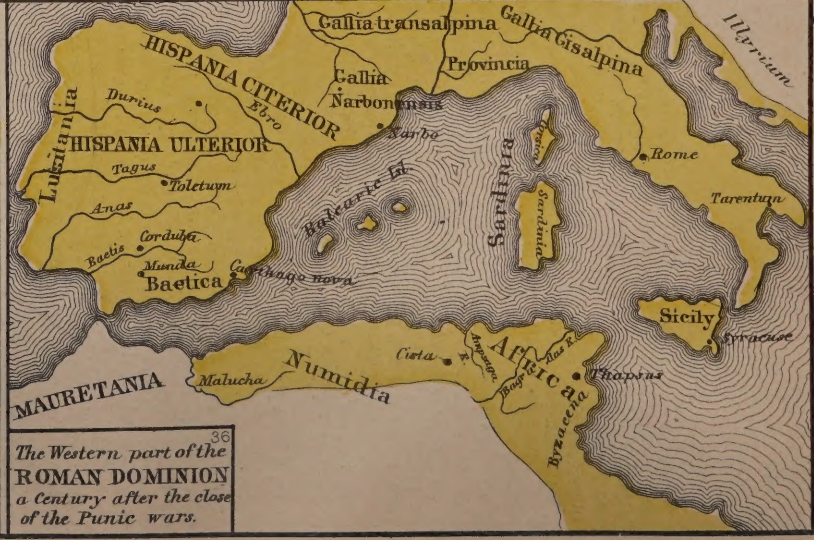
The Western part of the ROMAN-DOMINION at the close of the Punic Wars.



36

The Western part of the ROMAN DOMINION a Century after the close of the Punic wars.

THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE EASTERN BASIN OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

THE conclusion of peace with Carthage (201 B.C.) was followed by an attack on Macedonia, whose king, Philip, had lent aid to Carthage. The proclamation by the Roman general Flamininus (198 B.C.) of liberty and independence to the Hellenes, by depriving Philip of his Hellenic allies, settled the war. He was defeated at Cynoscephalæ (197 B.C.), and was only too glad to be allowed to retain his greatly weakened kingdom. Thirty years later, the Macedonian Kingdom was divided up into four districts. Its last king, Perseus, died as prisoner in Rome (166 B.C.). The weakness of Macedonia encouraged Antiochus of Syria to extend his dominions. In 192 B.C. he landed in Greece with ten thousand five hundred men. At the same time a Roman force of twenty-five thousand men landed in Epirus. The Romans drove Antiochus back into Asia, and defeated him in the great battle of Magnesia, 190 B.C. By this victory Rome did not acquire a single inch of fresh territory, but she was able to reward her allies, Eumenes of Pergamus and the Rhodians, in such a way as to make it apparent to the whole East that the Roman alliance was highly profitable.

The small state of Pergamus was made into a powerful empire. Hardly sixty years later (130 B.C.), the childless Attalus III. left by will this empire to the Roman people. It was then transformed into the Roman province of Asia.

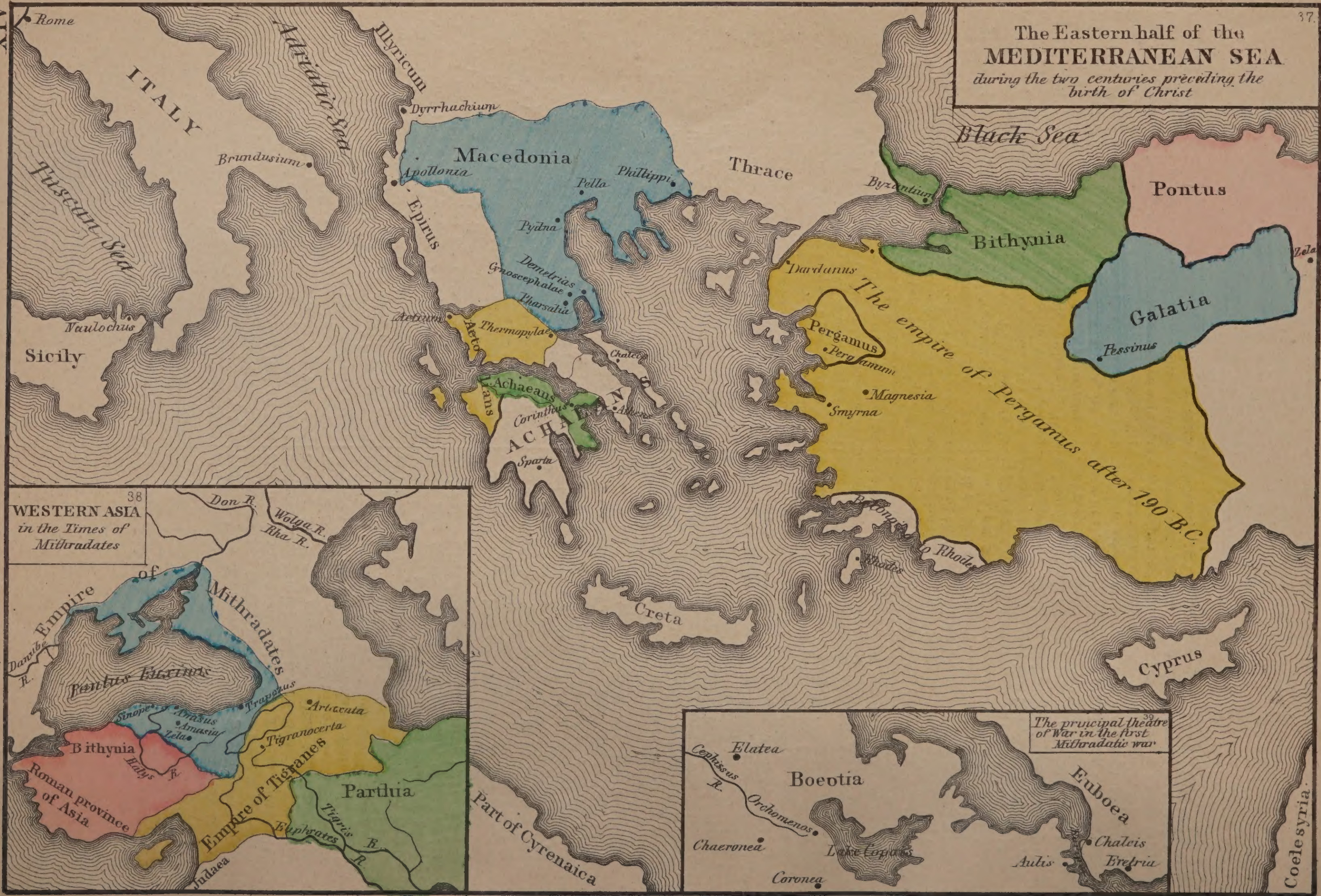
East of the province of Asia was the Kingdom of Pontus, ruled since 120 B.C. by Mithradates V. This energetic ruler had gradually added to his patrimony all the coast of the Black Sea as far as the Danube, and now thought himself quite a match for Rome, which was just then convulsed by civil war (88 B.C.). He overran Galatia, Phrygia, and the province of Asia, and proclaimed himself the deliverer of Asia from the Roman yoke, ordering that all Romans on Asiatic soil should on one day be massacred, which caused the death of eighty thousand persons. The Romans confided the conduct of the war to Sulla, who (86 B.C.) destroyed the Pontic army at Chæronea (Map xxxix.). He recovered Greece, Macedonia, and Asia Minor. By the peace of Dardanus (84 B.C.) Mithradates had not only to abandon all his conquests, but had to surrender his fleet and pay a fine of two thousand talents (nearly three millions of dollars). These disasters encouraged his Bosporanic provinces to revolt, and while trying to subdue them, he was, without provocation, attacked by the Roman commander Murena (Second Mithradatic War, 83–82 B.C.). He was only too glad to make peace with the Romans, in order to subdue his own rebels and begin his preparations for the unavoidable struggle. The attack of Murena had shown him what he had to expect from Rome. Nothing was left undone that care and energy could accomplish toward the construction of a power which might fairly hope to hold its own when the time for a final trial of strength with Rome should arrive. It came (74 B.C.) when Nicomedes III. bequeathed Bithynia by his last will to the Roman people. Had Mithradates allowed Rome to take possession, the Pontic Kingdom would have been laid open to attack along the whole of its western border. He therefore resolved to seize Bithynia before the Romans could occupy it. This brought about the final struggle (Third Mithradatic War, 74–65 B.C.), which lasted nearly nine years. The protraction of the war was owing, in the first place, to the genius and energy of the Pontic monarch, who created army after army, and who gradually learned the wisdom of avoiding pitched battles. It was further owing to the participation in it of a new foe, Tigranes, who brought to the aid of Mithradates a force exceeding his own, and very considerable resources.

Rome was barely capable of contending at one and the same time with two such kingdoms as those of Pontus and Armenia, and up to the close of 67 B.C. she had made no great impression on either of her two adversaries. But now the genius of Pompey devised a scheme by which an immediate and decisive result was made attainable. His treaty with Phraates, King of Parthia, brought a new power into the field—a power fully capable of turning the balance in favor of the side whereto it attached itself. The attitude of Phraates paralyzed Tigranes, and the Pontic monarch, deprived of the succors on which he had hitherto greatly depended, was completely overmatched. Defeated near the Armenian border by the Romans under Pompey, and forbidden to seek a refuge in Armenia by Tigranes, he had no choice but to yield his patrimony to the victors and to retire to those remote territories of which he had become possessed by conquest.

His spirit was still unbroken, and he formed the bold plan of invading Italy from the north; but at last his son, Pharnaces, was proclaimed king by the soldiers who were unwilling to embark in so wild a project. This broke his spirit, and the great warrior who had withstood the power of Rome for twenty-five years took poison. It was ineffectual, from the frequent use he had made of poisons and antidotes, and he was, at his own request, killed by a faithful Gaul in his service (63 B.C.).

The death of Mithradates was looked upon by the Romans as equivalent to a victory: the messengers who reported to the general the catastrophe appeared crowned with laurel, as if they had a victory to announce, in the Roman camp before Jericho. In him a great enemy was borne to the tomb—greater than had ever yet withstood the Romans in the indolent East.

XIV



37.

The Eastern half of the **MEDITERRANEAN SEA** *during the two centuries preceding the birth of Christ*

38 WESTERN ASIA *in the Times of Mithradates*

39 *The principal theatre of War in the first Mithradatic war*

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

When Pompey, the conqueror of Mithradates, reached Rome (61 B.C.), he received a two day's triumph. Now at the height of his popularity, he might have usurped supreme power, had he not lacked the necessary energy and determination. He soon found that when the first gratitude was over he was not near so powerful with the government as he expected to be. The refusal of the Senate to grant the allotment of lands requested by Pompey for his veterans led to a complete break between him and the government, and resulted (59 B.C.) in the so-called First Triumvirate, a union of Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar, who usurped the whole power of the Senate and People, and bound themselves by oath to permit nothing to be done without their unanimous consent. Events then passed through their inevitable course. The death of Crassus (53 B.C.), and the battle of Pharsalia (48 B.C.), left Cæsar the master of the world.

At this moment nothing could have prevented the inevitable result. The dagger of Brutus (March 15, 44 B.C.) merely removed a man, but it left the fact. The battle of Actium (31 B.C.) reaffirmed the destiny of Rome, and the death of the republic was illustrated by the annexation of Egypt. The circle of conquest around the Mediterranean was complete—the function of the Republic was discharged.

Thus the military organization common to all the cities of antiquity at length had its effect—a sad effect. War being the natural condition of things, the weak were overpowered by the strong, and more than once one might have seen formed states of considerable magnitude under the control or tyranny of a victorious and dominant city. Finally one arose, Rome, which, possessing greater energy, patience, and skill, more capable of subordination and command, of conservative views and practical calculations, effected, after 700 years of effort, in incorporating under her dominion the entire basin of the Mediterranean.

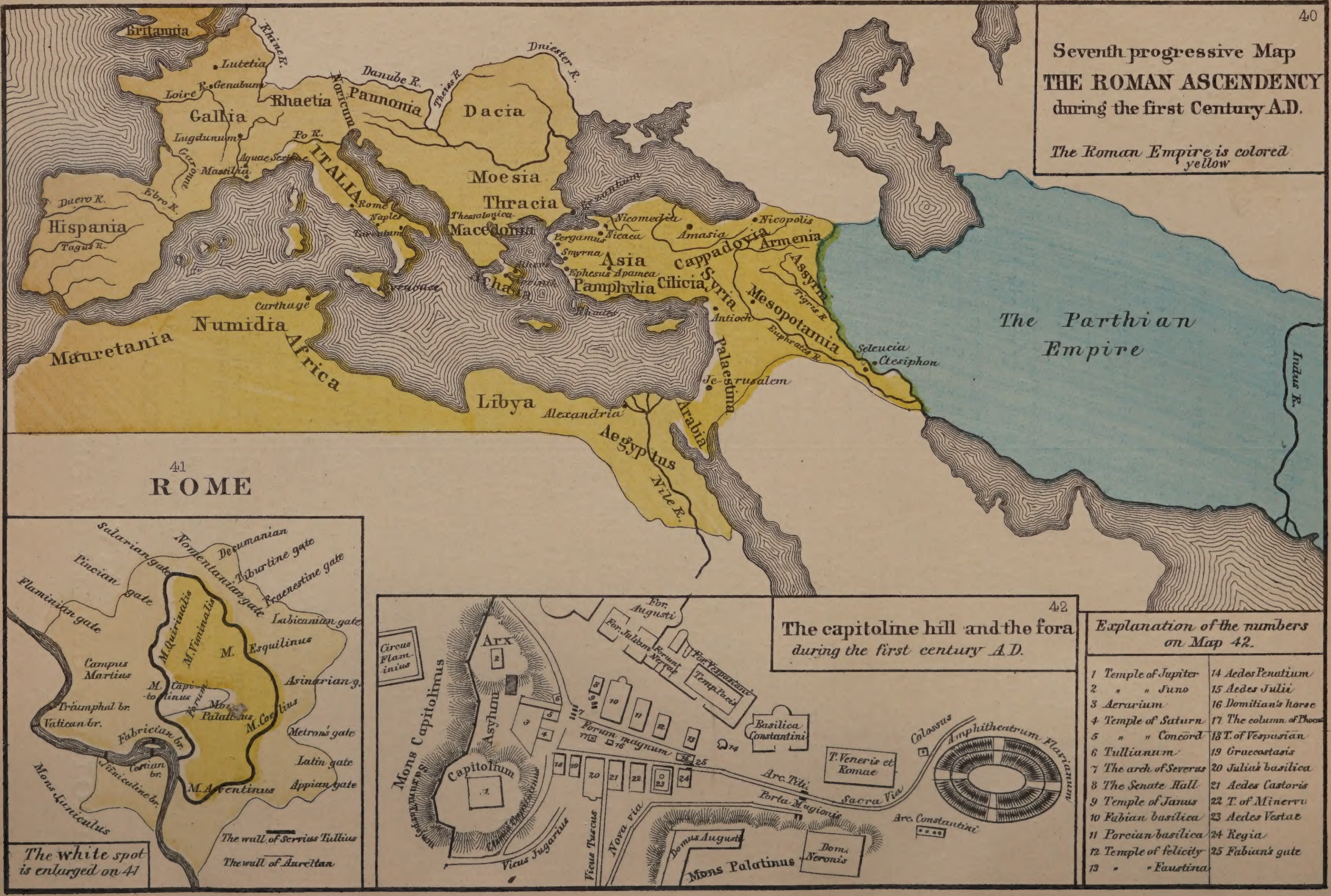
To gain this point she submitted to military discipline, and, like a fruit springing from its germ, a military despotism was the issue. Thus was the Empire formed.

Rome, instead of being itself the state, became merely the capital of a more extended empire. The ordinary boundaries of this empire, which it sometimes exceeded, were, in Europe, the two great rivers of the Rhine and the Danube; in Asia, the Euphrates and the sandy desert of Syria; in Africa, likewise the desert. It thus included the fairest portions of the earth surrounding the Mediterranean Sea. This empire was divided into two distinct parts: Italy and the provinces. The division of the provinces was made in such a manner that those in which no regular armies were kept were assigned to the Senate; whereas, those in which armies were stationed belonged to the emperor. His provinces yielded an incomparably larger revenue than those of the Senate, but it may nevertheless have been insufficient to maintain the armies which were stationed in fortified camps in those provinces. These fortified camps were distributed as follows:

Three legions were sufficient for Britain. The principal strength lay upon the Rhine and Danube, and consisted of 16 legions. The defence of the Euphrates was intrusted to 8 legions. With regard to Egypt, Africa, and Spain, as they were far removed from any important scene of war, a single legion maintained the domestic tranquillity of each of these great provinces.

For more than two hundred years, the dangers inherent to a military government were in a great measure suspended. The soldiers were seldom roused to that fatal sense of their own strength, and of the weakness of the civil authority, which was before and afterward productive of such dreadful calamities. Caligula and Domitian were assassinated in their palaces by their own domestics; the convulsions, however, which agitated Rome on their deaths were confined within the walls of the city. But Nero involved the whole Empire in his ruin.

The disorganization of the Empire which then commenced (68 B.C.) was arrested in its natural progress by such wise and firm princes as Vespasian, Trajan, Hadrian, and the two great Antonines. But it made rapid strides again under Commodus, who was too weak and too conscious of his demerits to venture on repressing disorders or punishing those engaged in them. The army, in which lay the last hope of Roman unity and greatness, was itself becoming disorganized. No common spirit animated its different parts. The city guards, the Prætorians, and the legionaries, had different interests. The soldiers were tired of the military life, and, mingling with the provincials, engaged in trade and agriculture, or else turned themselves into banditti, and preyed upon the rest of the community. Meanwhile, population was declining, and production consequently diminishing, while luxury and extravagance continued to prevail among the upper classes and to exhaust the resources of the state. Decline and decrepitude showed themselves in almost every portion of the body politic, and a general despondency, the result of a consciousness of debility, pervaded all classes. Nevertheless, under all this apparent weakness was an extraordinary reserve of strength. The Empire, which under Commodus seemed to be tottering to its fall, still stood, and resisted the most terrible attacks from without, for the further space of two full centuries.



40

Seventh progressive Map

THE ROMAN ASCENDENCY

during the first Century A.D.

The Roman Empire is colored yellow

41

ROME

The white spot is enlarged on 41

42

The capitoline hill and the fora

during the first century A.D.

Explanation of the numbers on Map 42.

1 Temple of Jupiter	14 Aedes Penatium
2 " " Juno	15 Aedes Julii
3 Aerarium	16 Domitian's horse
4 Temple of Saturn	17 The column of Phocas
5 " " Concord	18 T. of Vespasian
6 Tullianum	19 Graecostasis
7 The arch of Severus	20 Julia's basilica
8 The Senate Hall	21 Aedes Castoris
9 Temple of Janus	22 T. of Minerva
10 Fabian basilica	23 Aedes Vestae
11 Porcian basilica	24 Regia
12 Temple of felicity	25 Fabian's gate
13 " " Faustina	

THE ROMAN EMPIRE DURING THE THIRD AND FOURTH CENTURIES, A.D.

The special characteristic of the Third Century A.D. is the usurpation of supreme power by the soldiers, who had at last discovered their strength, and nominated or removed emperors at their pleasure. Constant disquiet and disturbance was the result of this unhappy discovery. Twenty-five emperors wore the purple in the space of ninety-two years, each of them fully occupied by the necessity of maintaining his own power against rival pretenders, and resisting the attacks of the barbarians, who were continually increasing in strength and audacity.

But in 268 A.D. the Empire was raised from this state of weakness and disorganization by a succession of five able emperors (Claudius, Aurelian, Tacitus, Probus, and Carus), during whose reigns a most remarkable progress was made toward a recovery of the power and prestige of Rome. With the accession of Diocletian (284 A.D.) the declining Empire experienced a still greater revival. Power passed away from the hands of the soldiers, and tended to become dynastic; the principle of association, adopted on a wide scale, gave stability to the government. New arrangements were made, all favorable to absolutism. Such restraint as the Senate had, up to this time, exercised on the despotic authority of the emperors was completely removed by the departure of the Court from Rome, and the erection of other cities—Nicomedia, Milan, Constantinople—into seats of government. The influence of the Prætorians, who, in their fortified camp, at once guarding and commanding Rome, had constituted another check on the absolute power of the emperors, ceased now entirely.

Above all, the multiplication of emperors, and the care taken to secure the throne against such an occurrence as a vacancy, took from the legionaries the power, which they had so long abused, of making and destroying monarchs at their will, and placed the imperial authority almost beyond the risk of danger from military violence. Since 292 the Empire was ruled by four imperial colleagues, the two Augusti (Diocletian and Maximian), and their subordinate Cæsars (Galerius and Constantius), who were to stand to the two Augusti as sons and successors. Each had a quarter of the Empire.

Diocletian had the prefecture of the East, comprising Thrace, Macedon (including Achaia), Asia, and Egypt.

Maximian had the prefecture of Italy, comprising Italy (including Gallia, Cisalpina, and Rhætia), and Africa (including Numidia and Mauritania).

Galerius had the prefecture of Illyricum, comprising Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia.

Constantius had the prefecture of Gaul, comprising Spain, Gaul, and Britain.

This arrangement formed the groundwork of all subsequent divisions.

After the Empire was reunited under Constantine (323 B.C.), a new division into prefectures and dioceses was made. (Map xviii. shows the dioceses).

The dioceses of Spain, Gaul, and Britain formed the prefecture of Gaul.

The dioceses of Rome (the city forming a diocese by itself), Italy, and Africa formed the prefecture of Italy.

The dioceses of Dacia and Macedonia formed the prefecture of Illyricum.

The dioceses of Egypt, the East, Asia, Pontus, and Thrace formed the prefecture of the East.

GAUL BEFORE AND AFTER THE CONQUEST. MAPS XLV. AND XLVI.

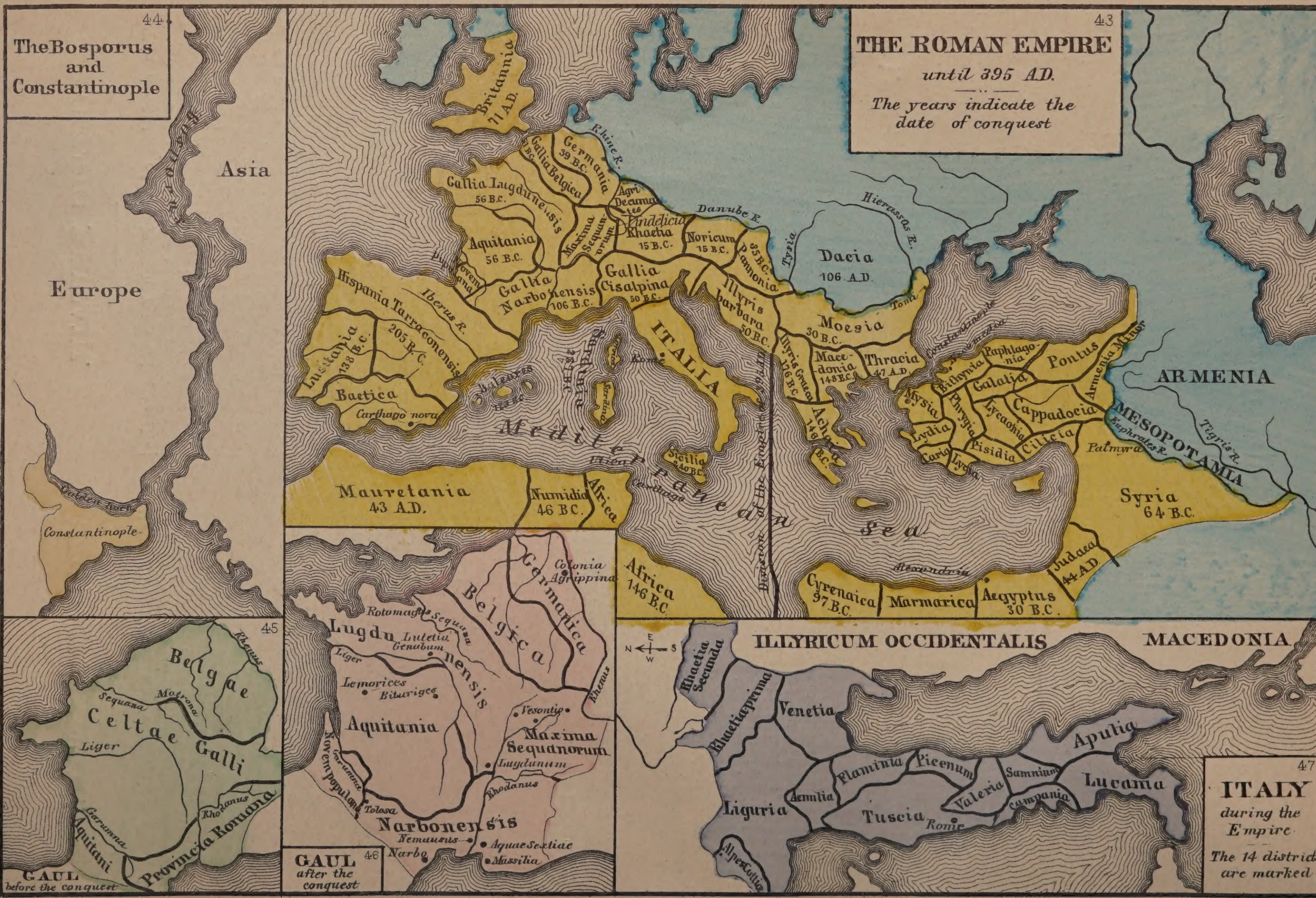
The Romans entered Gaul as allies of the Greek city of Massalia, and from helping their allies they took to conquering on their own account. A Roman province was thus formed in the southeastern part of Transalpine Gaul (125–105 B.C.). This part of Gaul was early and thoroughly Romanized, and part of it still keeps in its name of Provence the memory of its having been the first Roman province beyond the Alps. The rest of Gaul was left untouched till the great campaigns of Cæsar, from whom we get our chief knowledge of the country as it was in his day. Transalpine Gaul, as a geographical division, has well-marked boundaries in the Mediterranean, the Alps, the Rhine, the ocean, and the Pyrenees. But this geographical division has never answered to any divisions of blood and language. Gaul in Cæsar's day, that is, Gaul beyond the Roman province, formed three divisions:

Aquitaine, to the southwest, was Iberian, akin to the people on the other side of the Pyrenees. Celtic Gaul, from the Loire to the Seine and Marne, was the most truly Celtic land. Belgic Gaul, from the Seine and Marne to the Rhine, was full of German elements. There was, in fact, no unity in Gaul, beyond that which the Romans brought with them. In seven years Cæsar subdued the whole land, and the work of assimilation began. The Latin language gradually displaced all the native languages, except where Basque and Breton survive in two corners; but in a large part of Belgic Gaul the events of later times brought the German tongue back again.

By way of introducing greater uniformity in the administrative districts, a new division of provinces was made by Augustus in 27 B.C.

The old Provincia maintained its former extent, increased by the conquest of the intervening Alpine valleys, and received, from its capital, Narbo, the new name of Gallia Narbonensis. The northern part was afterward separated from it, and formed the province of Maxima Sequanorum. Similarly, the central strip of the old Celtica was called Lugdunensis, after its capital, Lugdunum, but the southwestern part of it was added to the province of Aquitania. Original Aquitania was afterward separated from it under the name of Novempopulana. Gallia Belgica was augmented by the southeastern part of Celtica. Under Claudius the border-land along the Rhine was constituted as a separate province—Germania.

XVI.



43 THE ROMAN EMPIRE until 395 AD. The years indicate the date of conquest

44 The Bosporus and Constantinople

45 GAUL before the conquest

46 GAUL after the conquest

47 ITALY during the Empire. The 14 districts are marked

CELTIC BRITAIN.

The condition of the British Isles prior to the Roman invasion is a subject wrapped in obscurity. Their authentic history begins in the age of Alexander the Great (333 B.C.), when the Greeks acquired an extensive knowledge of the western and northern countries from Gibraltar to the mouth of the Vistula. At that time merchants of Marseilles fitted out an exploring expedition, accompanied by Pytheas, an eminent mathematician of that city. Pytheas coasted along a portion of the British Isles, and also landed in Britain, where he remained some time, and claims to have visited most of the accessible ports and taken astronomical notes. He found Britain inhabited by Celts. Nobody knows when the first Celts settled in Britain. And when they did come the immigration was not all over in one year, nor even in one century. The invasions may, however, be grouped in two, and looked at as made by peoples of both groups of the Celtic family, each having linguistic features of its own. The national name which the members of one group have always given themselves, is that of Gaidhel, pronounced and spelt in English, Gael, but formerly written by themselves Goidel. The national name of the other group is Brython (Briton). They were really Gauls who came over to settle in the island, which was called, after them, Britain. They had been preceded, however, by the other branch. The Goidels were the first Celts to come to Britain. They had probably been here for centuries when the Brythons or Gauls came and drove them backward. The Goidels had done the same with another people, for when they landed they found a small, dark-haired race inhabiting all the British Isles. They represented the præ-Aryan population of Europe, and possibly were related to the ancestors of the Basques in Northwest Spain. These non-Celtic natives of Britain were known as Ivernians. After them Ireland was called Ivernia, distorted by the Romans into Hibernia. The Ivernians seem to have been a nation of hunters and shepherds, who learned to till the soil from the Goidels, whom they called Féini, or wagon-men (Fenians). These non-Celtic aboriginals spoke what was practically one and the same language in both Britain and Ireland. It lingered the longest in the Irish province of Munster, where it was still the common language in the time of Bede (about 700).

The Ivernians of Ireland were never extirpated, but they adopted gradually the manners and speech of the Goidelic Celts, and it is perhaps from their Ivernian ancestry that the Irish of the present day have inherited the lively humor and ready wit which, among other characteristics, distinguish them from the gloomy Kymri of Wales.

Some of the most curious and interesting remains of this Celtic period are the structures of immense blocks of stone which still exist in Britain, and though their date is disputed, yet their very early origin appears most probable. Of these, the largest, and one of the most ancient, is *Avebury* in Wilts, and the next in size and magnitude of its structural stones is *Stonehenge*, in the same county.

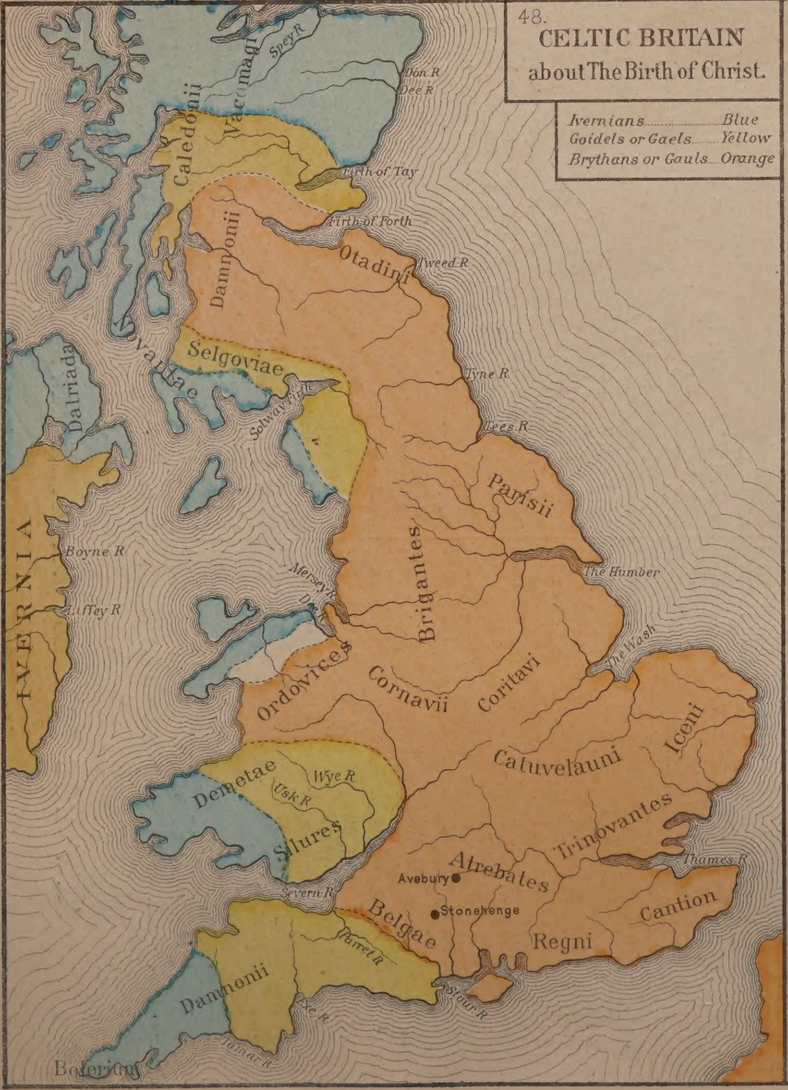
ROMAN BRITAIN.

While Julius Cæsar was conquering Gaul, he learned that to the West of it lay an island named Britain, whose tribes were mainly of the same race with the Gauls, and gave them help in their struggle against the Romans. He resolved, therefore, to invade Britain (55 B.C.), and in two successive descents he landed on its shores, defeated the Britons, and penetrated at last beyond the Thames. Cæsar, however, was recalled from Britain by risings in Gaul; and for a hundred years more the island remained unconquered. It was not till the time of the Emperor Claudius that its conquest was again undertaken (43 A.D.), and so swiftly was the work carried out by the Roman commanders that within thirty years the bulk of the country had passed beneath the Roman sway. Agricola (78–85 A.D.) even carried the Roman arms far into Scotland.

He drew the first line of forts between the Tyne and the Solway. But the grand work, as we see it at present, was carried out by Hadrian, thirty-five years after the recall of Agricola. Hadrian built a wall eighty miles in length, to divide the barbarians from the Romans. He does not seem to have desired to recover the portion of country between the upper and lower Isthmus, which had been conquered by Agricola, and protected by him with a second line of forts, between the Forth and the Clyde, which is now called "Graham's Dyke." Antoninus Pius, the successor of Emperor Hadrian, connected these forts of Agricola by means of a deep fosse and an earthen rampart. The ditch extends 20 miles in length, is 40 feet wide, and 20 feet deep, running in an unbroken line over hill and dale from the Clyde near Dumbarton to Caeriden on the Forth.

Henceforward, Britain formed a part of the Roman Empire. It was inhabited by a people of Celtic and Roman blood, a people governed by Celtic or Roman laws, speaking the Celtic or Latin tongue, and sharing to a great extent the civilization and manners and religion of the Empire. When the Empire became Christianized, Britain became a Christian country. The outer aspect of the land was that of a Roman province; it was guarded by border fortresses; it was studded with peopled cities; it was tilled by great land-owners whose villas rose proudly over the huts of the serfs. The Roman road struck like an arrow over hill and plain, and the Roman bridge spanned river and stream.

Four Roman roads deserve especially to be mentioned: Watling Street, runs from London to Wroxeter; Hermin Street, from Sussex coast to the Humber; Foss Way, from the sea-coast near Seaton, in Devonshire, to Lincoln; and Ikenild Street, from Icklingham, near Bury St. Edmond's, in Suffolk, to Wantage, in Berkshire, and on to Cirencester and Gloucester. But in spite of its roads, its villas, and fortresses, it remained, even at the close of the Roman rule, an "isle of blowing woodland," a wild and half-reclaimed country, the bulk of whose surface was occupied by forest and waste. It was only in the towns that the conquered Britons became entirely Romanized.

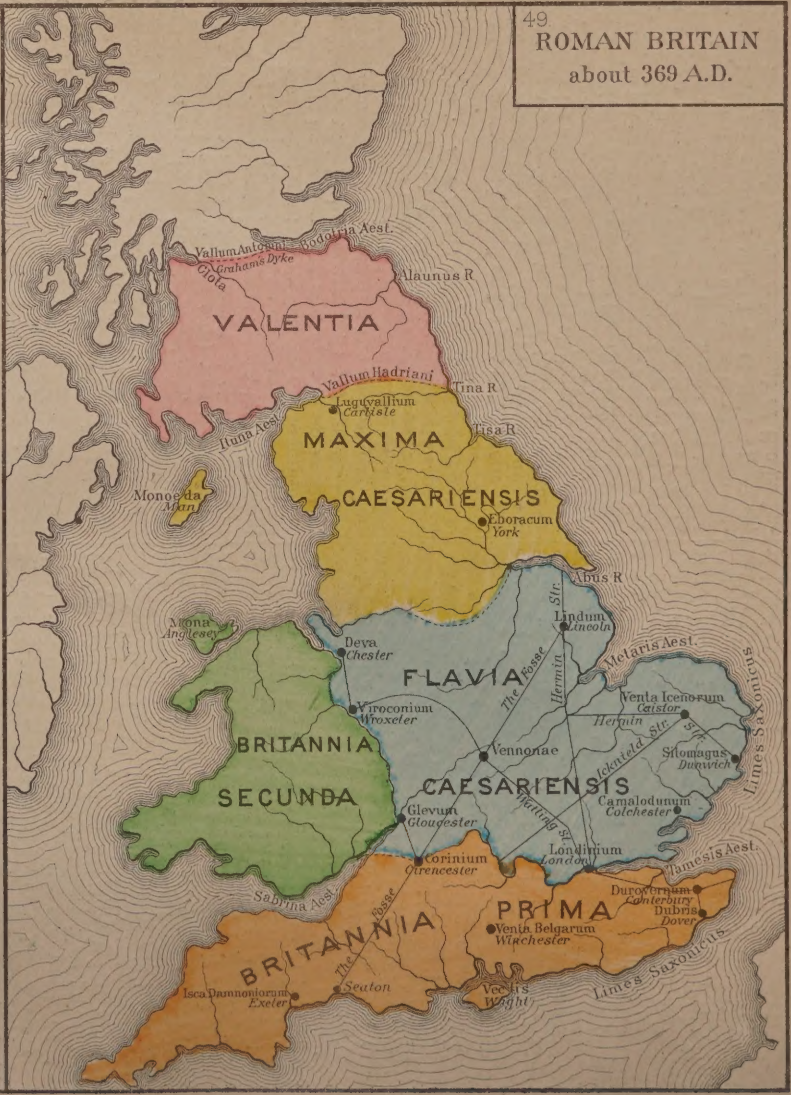


48.

CELTIC BRITAIN
about The Birth of Christ.

Ivernians .... *Blue*
Goidels or Gaels .... *Yellow*
Brythans or Gauls ... *Orange*

NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: *Modern Names.*



49.

ROMAN BRITAIN
about 369 A.D.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE SINCE 395 A.D.

The mapping out of the Empire into prefectures and its division between two or more imperial colleagues, led naturally to its more lasting division into what were practically two Empires.

On the death of Theodosius the Great (395 A.D.) the Empire was divided between his two sons, Arcadius taking the Eastern provinces (colored yellow), while Honorius took the Western provinces (colored brown). Through the greater part of the fifth century the successors of Arcadius and of Honorius formed two distinct lines of emperors, of whom the Eastern reigned at Constantinople, the Western most commonly at Ravenna.

But as the dominions of each prince were alike Roman, the Eastern and Western emperors were still looked on in theory as imperial colleagues charged with the administration of a common Roman dominion. But this idea gradually disappeared. Relations of friendship between the governments are replaced by feelings of jealousy and dislike. The origin of this estrangement appears to have been the mutual jealousy and conflicting pretensions of Rufinus, the minister of the Eastern, and Stilicho, the general and guardian of the Western emperor. This jealousy cost Rufinus his life. The ill-will was brought to a head when the Visi-Goths of Mœsia having revolted under Alaric, were induced to remove to a region from which they threatened Italy. When Alaric was made by Arcadius master-general of Eastern Illyricum (398 A.D.) it was felt at once that the West was menaced; and the dreadful invasions which followed were ascribed to the connivance of Arcadius, who, to save his own territories, had let the Goths loose upon his brother's.

The first invasion (402 A.D.) carried devastation over the rich plains of Northern Italy, but was effectually checked by Stilicho, who completely defeated Alaric in the battle of Pollentia (403 A.D.) and forced him to retire into Illyricum.

The second invasion (408 A.D.) was more disastrous, because the Empire had lost the services of Stilicho. Alaric marched upon Rome, but consented to spare it on the receipt of an enormous ransom (409 A.D.). But being insulted during the following negotiations, he broke them off, and once more marched on Rome, which he entered as its master (410 A.D.). Honorius still refusing the terms of peace which Alaric offered, he advanced a third time upon Rome, which was now given to pillage. Nothing pagan escaped but that which found shelter under Christianity. For Alaric was, though a barbarian, a Christian.

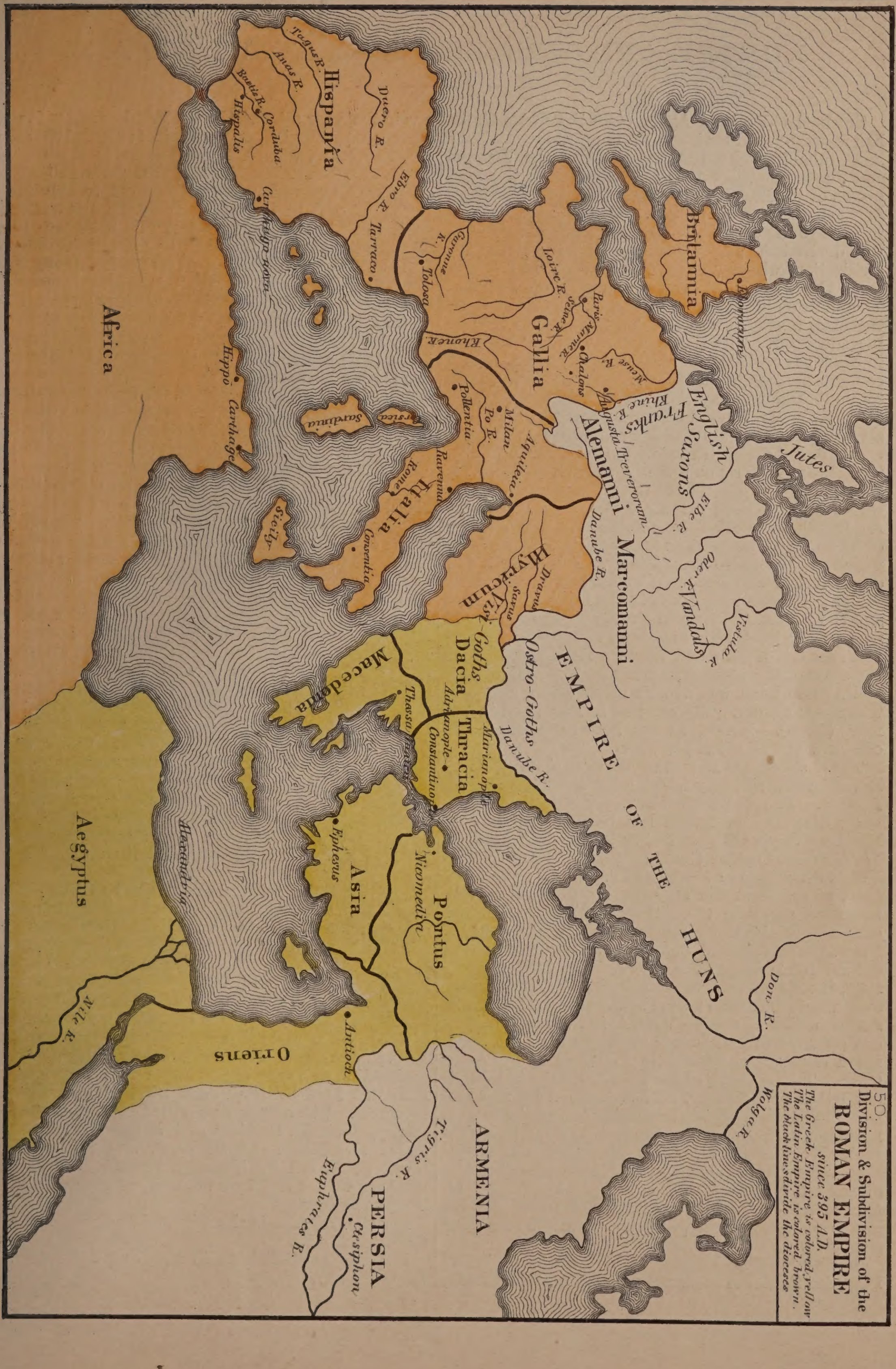
Heathenism was buried under the ruins of heathen Rome (August, 410 A.D.). After ravaging Southern Italy, he was preparing to pass into Africa, when suddenly he fell ill and died at Consentia (410 B.C.).

His successor, Athaulf, had neither his talents nor his ambition. After ravaging Southern Italy for two years, he made peace with Honorius, accepted his sister, Placidia, in marriage, and withdrew his army from Italy into Southern Gaul and Spain (412 A.D.), from which he drove the German tribes who had invaded it. He called himself the officer of the Roman emperor, but he really founded a Gothic kingdom, which was the first regular settlement of the barbarians inside the Roman Empire. Honorius survived these troubles more than ten years. He died childless (423 A.D.) without making any arrangement for the succession. The throne was seized by John, secretary of the late emperor, but Theodosius II., the Emperor of the East, claimed the throne for his infant nephew, Valentinian, the son of Placidia and her second husband, Constantius. Being a child of no more than six years of age, he was placed (425 A.D.) under the guardianship of Placidia.

Family arrangements connected with the betrothment of Valentinian to Eudoxia, daughter of Theodosius II., had made over to the East the Western provinces of Pannonia, Noricum and Illyris Barbara. By this union the Western Empire was practically confined to the three countries of Vindelicia, Rhætia, and Italy. For the precarious possessions in Gaul and Spain depended entirely on the good-will of the Visi-Goths. It was well that Goths and Romans were on good terms with each other, for they were soon attacked by their old enemies, the Huns.

Attila, King of the Huns, crossed the Rhine into Gaul and spread devastation far and wide over the country. Romans and Visi-Goths united their arms against them. On the field of Chalons Attila was beaten (451 A.D.), and forced to retreat beyond the Rhine; and although he endeavored to retrieve his failure, invading Italy (452 A.D.) and spreading desolation over the whole plain of the Po, it was only to retreat once more to his palace in the plain between Theiss and Danube. He survived his second failure only one year, and his death (453 A.D.) delivered the West from the peril of becoming a prey to Tartar hordes. Two years later (455) Valentinian also lost his life, being murdered by his general, Maximus, who succeeded him as emperor. Anxious to strengthen his hold upon the throne by connecting himself with the royal house of Theodosius, he married his son to the daughter of Valentinian, and forced his widow Eudoxia to become his wife. Eudoxia implored the aid of Genseric, King of the Vandals in Africa, whose fleet commanded the Mediterranean. He readily responded to her call. His landing at Ostia was the signal for the Romans to rise against their sovereign. The murder of Maximus failed to propitiate the Vandal. Despite the intercession of Pope Leo, Genseric entered Rome with his troops and gave it up to them to pillage for fourteen days. Eudoxia and her two daughters were made prisoners and borne away to Carthage. From this time the commander of the barbarian troops in the pay of Rome set up at pleasure one puppet-emperor after another. The last of these phantom monarchs, Romulus Augustulus, by a singular coincidence, bore the names of the founder of the city and of the Empire. Finally, at the command of Odoacer, German chief of the mercenaries, he laid down his useless sceptre (476 A.D.).

The Senate of Rome sent to the Eastern emperor, Zeno, to say that one emperor was enough, that Italy would have him for its emperor, but that the German general Odoacer, King of the Heruli, would act as his deputy in Italy. Zeno accordingly appointed Odoacer Patrician of Italy.



50.

Division & Subdivision of the
ROMAN EMPIRE
since 395 A.D.

The Greek Empire is colored, yellow
The Latin Empire is colored brown.
The black lines divide the dioceses

EUROPE AND WESTERN ASIA ABOUT 500 A. D.

SINCE the death of Attila (453) the Ostro-Goths had re-established their ancient independence. They now inhabited the country between the Danube and the Save. They received tribute from the Emperors of the East, and in return gave them hostages for the maintenance of peace. Among these hostages was the young Theodoric, the son of King Theudmir, who derived the same advantage from the Byzantine civilization which Philip of Macedon had drawn from the lessons of the conqueror of Leuctra. Theudmir on his death-bed declared Theodoric to be the most worthy, who accordingly was chosen to be his successor. The Emperor Zeno spared nothing in order to conciliate the young prince, and at length came to the resolution of formally surrendering Italy to him. Immediately the Ostro-Goths set out, with all their herds, from the Danube and the Save and approached the confines of Italy. Odoacer was three times defeated by Theodoric, first near Aquileia, then near Verona, and lastly near Ravenna. He sought a refuge behind the strong walls of Ravenna, where he was besieged three years by Theodoric. At length, compelled by famine and the clamors of the people, he made a treaty with Theodoric by which they were to rule jointly. But after a few days Odoacer was murdered by his conqueror.

Thus, Italy and the lands to the north of the Alps and the Adriatic became in substance, though not in name, an Ostro-Gothic kingdom, embracing the former dioceses of Italy and Western Illyricum, besides the coast of the present Provence. The seat of this Gothic dominion was usually at Ravenna, although Theodoric resided quite as often in Pavia and in Verona (Bern). Hence, in the hero-romances he is celebrated as Dietrich von Bern.

Thus, about 500 A. D. the Western dominions of Rome have practically fallen away from the Roman Empire. The whole West is under the rule of Teutonic kings. The Frank has become supreme in Northern Gaul, without losing his ancient hold on Western and Central Germany (see next page). The Visi-Goth reigns in Spain and Aquitaine; the Burgundian reigns in the lands between the Rhone and the Alps, and the Ostro-Goth in Italy. But the countries of the European mainland, though cut off from Roman political dominion, are far from being cut off from Roman influences. The Teutonic settlers, if conquerors, are also disciples. Their rulers are everywhere Christian; the Franks are even Catholics. Africa, under the Arian Vandal, is far more utterly cut off from the traditions of Rome than the lands ruled either by the Catholic Frank or by the Arian Goth. To the north of the Franks lie the independent tribes of Germany, still untouched by any Roman influence. They are beginning to find themselves new homes in Britain. The first place in this Teutonic West is occupied by Theodoric the Great. Humanity, temperance, and prudence elevated him above all other barbarian kings. By family alliances he became the relative and friend, by his power and wisdom the protector, of all the kings of the West.

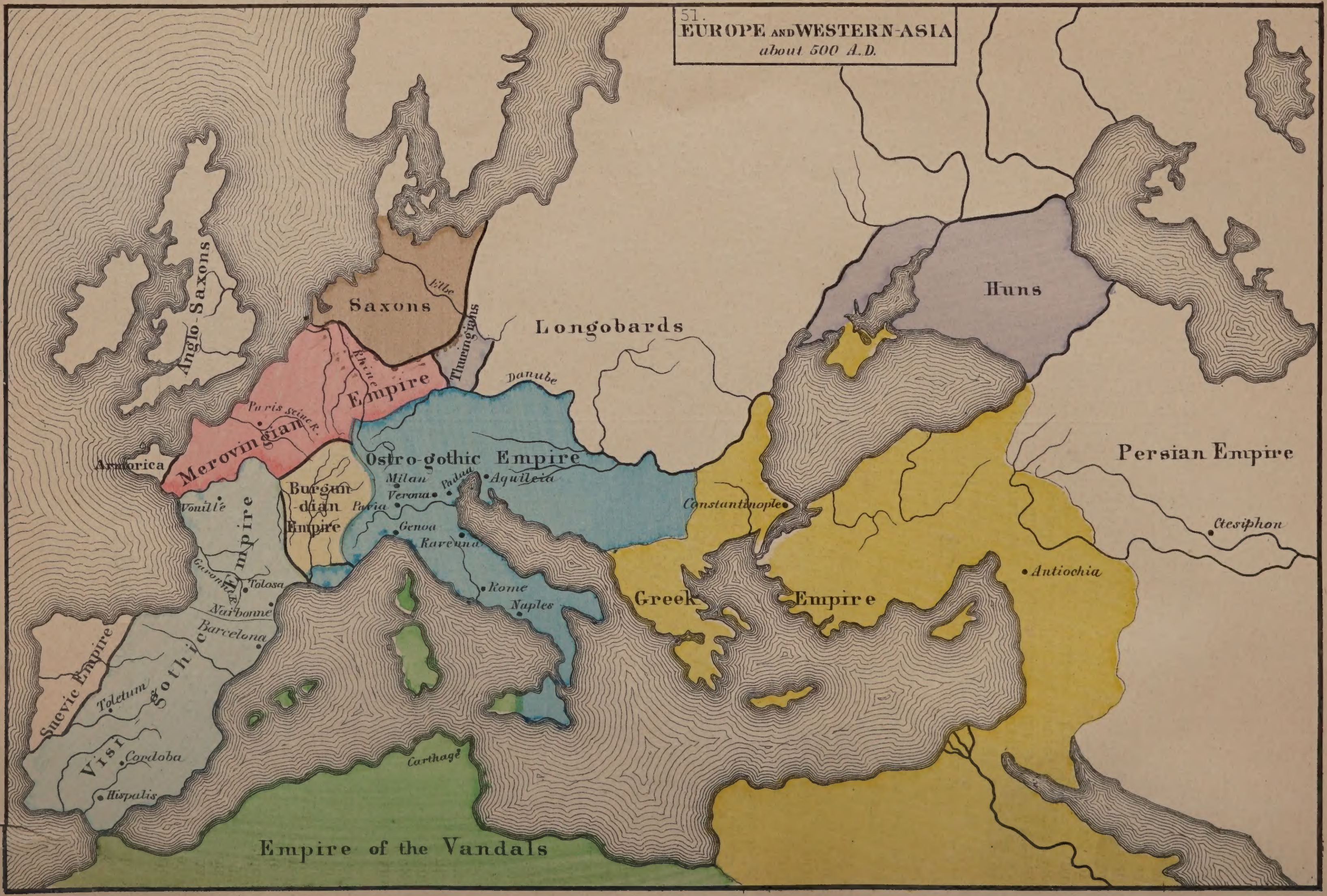
The Visi-Gothic kingdom, which stretched in 507 from the Pillars of Hercules to the Loire and Rhone, was in that year attacked by the Franks under Clovis. Conquered at Vouillé, on the Clain, it seemed that the end had come, when Theodoric came to the rescue of his grandson, Amalaric. The Franks were defeated near Arles, which victory secured to the Visi-Goths not only their Spanish conquests, but enabled them to maintain their control of Septimania (the coast between the Rhone and the Pyrenees). Theodoric united a part of Southern Gaul to the kingdom of the Ostro-Goths, and undertook the government of that part which the Visi-Goths retained, as well as of their Spanish conquests, as the guardian of their king, his grandson, Amalaric, and retained it till his death (526), which first severed the connection of the two Gothic kingdoms.

After the death of Theodoric, his daughter, Amalasuntha, became regent in the Ostro-Gothic kingdom for her son Athalaric, who died young (534). Amalasuntha now associated with herself, as co-regent, her cousin Theodat, who murdered her. This murder was the beginning of the end of the Ostro-Gothic kingdom. At that time the throne of Constantinople was occupied by the famous Justinian, to whom it seemed the first duty of a Roman emperor to restore the Roman Empire to its ancient extent. Lost provinces were won back in two continents. The Vandal kingdom in Africa (429–434) extended in 500 over the whole of the northern coast of Africa, from the Atlantic to Cyrenaica, including the Balearic Islands, Sardinia, Corsica, and the western part of Sicily. They were the greatest naval power in the Mediterranean. But after the death of Genseric (477) their power rapidly declined. Justinian thought the time had come to reunite Latin Africa with the Empire. A short war under Belisarius won Africa back. About the same time, the south of Spain was reconquered, and, after the murder of Amalasuntha, Justinian thought that Italy also might be won back from the Ostro-Goths. And so it was, after a war which lasted from 535 to 553, first under Belisarius, and then under Narses.

Thus Justinian reigned over both the Old and the New Rome, and the Empire again stretched from the ocean to the Euphrates, round the greater part of the Mediterranean. But it collapsed soon after the death (565) of Justinian. For in 568 the Longobards, under their king, Alboin, climbed the Alps and conquered the valley of the Po, which is still called, after them, Lombardy. He took Pavia, after a siege of three years, and made it the seat of government. His valor as a soldier was equalled by his justice and moderation as a sovereign. From this time part of Italy was held by the Lombards, and part by the emperors. The emperor kept the three great Islands (Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica) and a part of Southern Italy; also Rome and Ravenna, and the country about them, and the Venetian Islands. These dominions were ruled by an exarch, or governor, who lived at Ravenna.

For the Merovingian Empire and Burgundians, see notes to Map xx.

For the Anglo-Saxons in England, see notes to Maps xxi–xxv.



51.

EUROPE AND WESTERN-ASIA
about 500 A.D.

THE EMPIRE OF THE FRANKS.

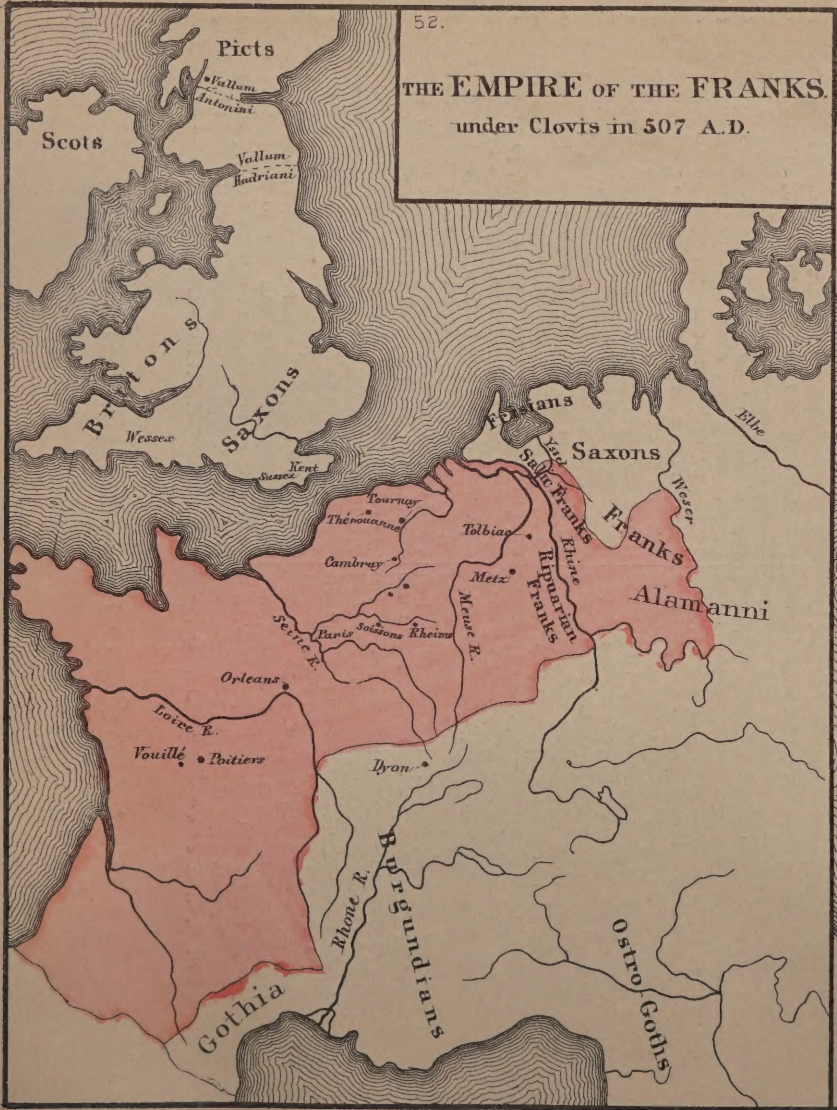
In the beginning of the fifth century, the defences of Gaul gave way and were carried at all points. Sixty thousand Burgundians established themselves between the Rhone and the Alps (406–411); two or three hundred thousand Visi-Goths occupied the southern part (412–450); and the Franks invaded and settled in the north (481–500). These Franks were not a people, but a confederation, which was divided into two great divisions: the Riparian Franks, who occupied both banks (ripæ) of the Lower Rhine, and the Salic Franks, who lived near the Lower Isala, or Sala, in Meergau or Meruwe (the sea district), hence called Meruwingians. These Meruwingians, or Salic Franks, gradually occupied Northern Gaul as far as the Loire. Clovis (Louis), chief of the petty tribe of the Franks of Tournay, excelled in gathering about himself warriors of all the Frankish tribes. With them he defeated the Roman governor Syagrius at Soissons (485). Subsequently Clovis was invested with the insignia of the consulship by the Emperor Anastasius, who thereby acknowledged him as the legal representative of the imperial authority in Northern Gaul (486).

Ten years later (496), when numerous bands of Alamanni threatened to pass the Rhine, the Franks flew to arms to oppose them. In similar emergencies the different tribes were accustomed to unite under the bravest chief, and Clovis reaped the honor of the common victory (which was *not* at Tolbiac). This was the occasion of his embracing Catholicism, the worship of Roman Gaul, having vowed during the battle to worship the God of his wife Clotilda if he gained the day. Three thousand of his warriors followed his example. Assured, thenceforth, of the support of the Catholic clergy throughout Gaul, they planned to take away the rest of the country from the heretical Visi-Goths and Burgundians, the cruel oppressors of the Catholics.

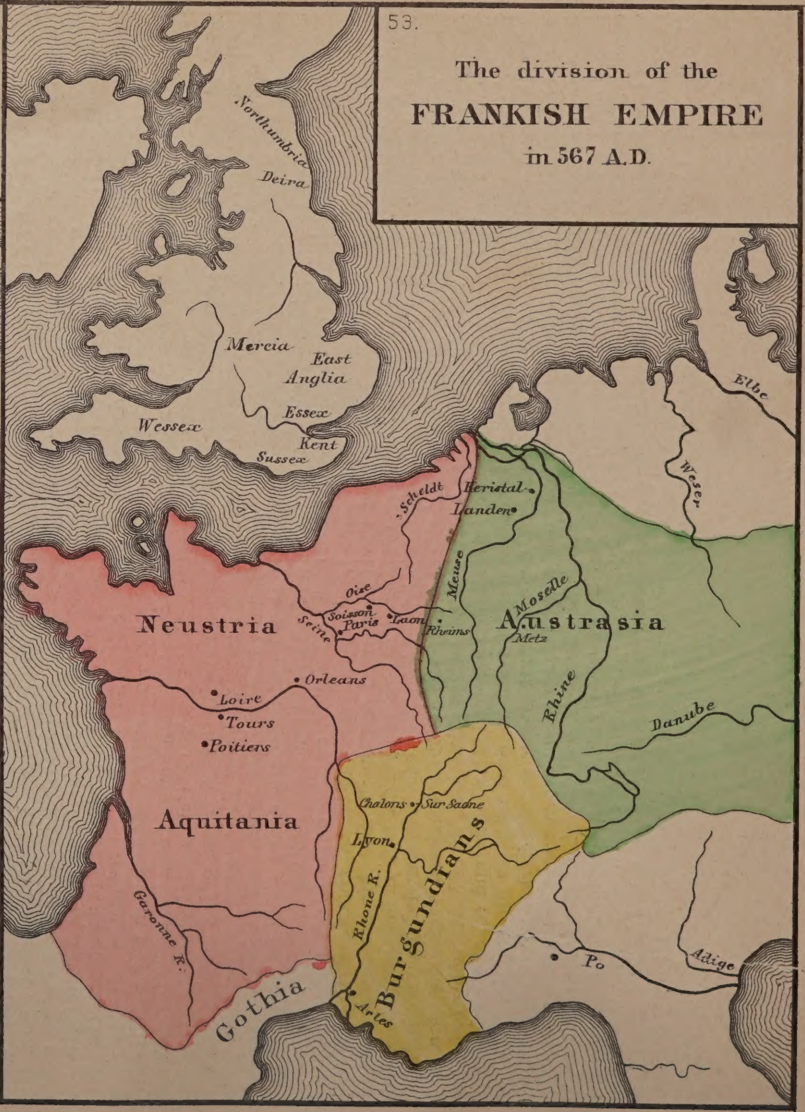
The union of the two divisions of the Frankish Confederacy, and the overthrow of the Alamanni, had made the Franks, under Clovis, the ruling people not only of North Gaul, but also of Central Germany.

Their territory thus took in both lands which had been part of the Empire and lands that had never been such. This was a special characteristic of the Frankish settlement, and one which influenced the whole of their later history. There were Frankish lands to the East which never had been Roman (Teutonic Francia). There were lands in Northern Gaul which remained practically Roman under the Frankish dominion (Latin Francia). Their dominion was fated to be the most lasting of the Teutonic kingdoms founded within the precincts of the Empire, for the obvious reason that while the Goths in Spain and the Vandals in Africa were isolated Teutonic settlers in a Roman land, the Franks in Gaul were strengthened by the unbroken Teutonic mainland at their back. Another reason was that the Franks alone received Christianity from the Latin Church, the dominant religion of the West. The Catholic Franks everywhere found the Gallic clergy ardent auxiliaries, who guided and lighted their progress, and gained the country over to them beforehand. This union of Clovis with the clergy of the conquered Gauls threatened to be fatal to the Burgundians. Their king, Gondebaut, humbled himself to save his throne. He promised to turn Catholic, gave the Catholic clergy his children to educate, and wound up these concessions by becoming tributary to Clovis. Alaric II., King of the Visi-Goths, entertaining a similar dread of Clovis, endeavored in vain to propitiate him. Clovis spoke him fairly, but soon after he called upon his Franks to free the Catholic Gauls from the tyranny of the heretical Goths. So zealous a defender of the Catholic Church could not fail to find her a powerful help toward victory. The Goths were conquered at Vouglé (507), and Southern Gaul obeyed Clovis. By this victory he increased his power so much that he overshadowed completely the other small Frankish kings, and, after having isolated them, in a manner, by taking away their soldiers, he was able with impunity to have them assassinated one after the other, or to kill them treacherously with his own hands. The church, preoccupied by the idea of unity, applauded their deaths. Thus Clovis became the only chief of the Franks.

If he had had but one successor after his death (511), Gaul would have been more tranquil, and would not have been desolated by war, as was the case; but he left four sons (Theodoric † 533, Chlodomer † 524, Childebert † 558, and Chlotar † 561), who divided the country between themselves; and again emulation arose among these kings as to who should have the most warriors, and, consequently, who should engage in the most wars: wars against the Thuringians (conquered by Theodoric in 531), against the Burgundians, whose kingdom was destoyed by Childebert and Chlotar in 532, and, lastly, wars between themselves. Chlotar, left sole King of Gaul in 558, was in 561 succeeded by his four sons. After the death of Charibert, in 567, his inheritance was divided among his brothers, and this triple division (represented on map liii) was alone henceforth of historical importance. Sigebert received Austrasia, with the capital at Metz (sometimes at Rheims); Chilperic, Neustria, with the capital at Soissons; and Gontran, Burgundy, with Chalons-sur-Saône as capital, in both of which later divisions the mass of the population was Romano-Celtic, or Romanic.


52.

THE EMPIRE OF THE FRANKS. under Clovis in 507 A.D.


53.

The division of the FRANKISH EMPIRE in 567 A.D.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

Britain remained a province of the Roman Empire for more than three hundred years, but throughout these centuries the province was wasted from time to time by inroads of the unconquered tribes of the North, whose attacks grew more formidable as Rome grew weaker in her struggle against the barbarians, who beset her on every border. At last the Empire was forced to withdraw its troops from Britain (410) and leave the province to defend itself against its numerous foes—pirates who attacked its shores, and highland tribes (Picts) who penetrated to the heart of the country. It was to repulse the Picts that Britain sought the aid of some bands of Jutes, who landed under their chieftain Hengist, at Ebbesfleet, on the Isle of Thanet (449), and obtained lands in reward for their assistance. But the Jutes themselves soon became as great a danger as the Picts whom they had repulsed; as quarrels arose with Britons they called for help from their fatherland, and bands of Jutes, Saxons, and Englishmen descended one after another on the shores of Britain, to begin a work of conquest which at last made the land their own. But this conquest proved to be a most arduous task, for the mere forest belts which remained over vast stretches of country formed mighty barriers, which were everywhere strong enough to check the advance of an invader, and often strong enough to arrest it.

Instead of quartering themselves quietly on subjects who were glad to buy peace by obedience and tribute, Englishmen and Saxons had to make every inch of Britain their own by hard fighting. Instead of mastering the country in a few great battles, they had to tear it bit by bit from its defenders in a weary and endless strife. How slow the work of English conquest was, may be seen from the fact that it took nearly thirty years to win Kent alone, and more than a century to complete the conquest of Southern Britain, while the conquest of the bulk of the island was only wrought out after more than two centuries of bitter warfare. But it was just through the length of the struggle that of all the Teutonic conquests the English was the most thorough and complete. It was a sheer dispossession of the conquered people. They swept away all traces of the earlier state of things. As far as such a process is possible, they slew or drove out the older inhabitants. They kept their Teutonic religion and Teutonic language, and were thus able to grow up as a new Teutonic nation in their new home, without any important intermixture with the earlier inhabitants.

In the conquered part of Britain, Christianity wholly disappeared. When missionaries at last made their way into its bound, there is no record of there having been found a single Christian in the whole country. What they found was a purely heathen land, where homestead and boundary, and the very days of the week, bore the names of gods who had displaced Christ. It is hardly possible to conceive a stronger proof that the conquest of Britain had been a real displacement of the British people.

It was not, however, the island of Britain which Englishman and Saxon had mastered—it was that portion of it which lay within the bounds of the Roman Empire. Even in its widest advance, English life stopped abruptly at the Frith of Forth and Clyde, as Roman life had stopped there before it, while it penetrated but slowly and imperfectly into the western and northwestern districts of Britain, as Rome had penetrated but slowly and imperfectly into them.

The Jutes, who had come first (449), gradually spread themselves over the mainland of Kent, capturing the great Roman fortress of Durobrivæ (Rochester), and coast land as far as London. A second Jutish horde established itself in the Isle of Wight and on the opposite shore of Hampshire.

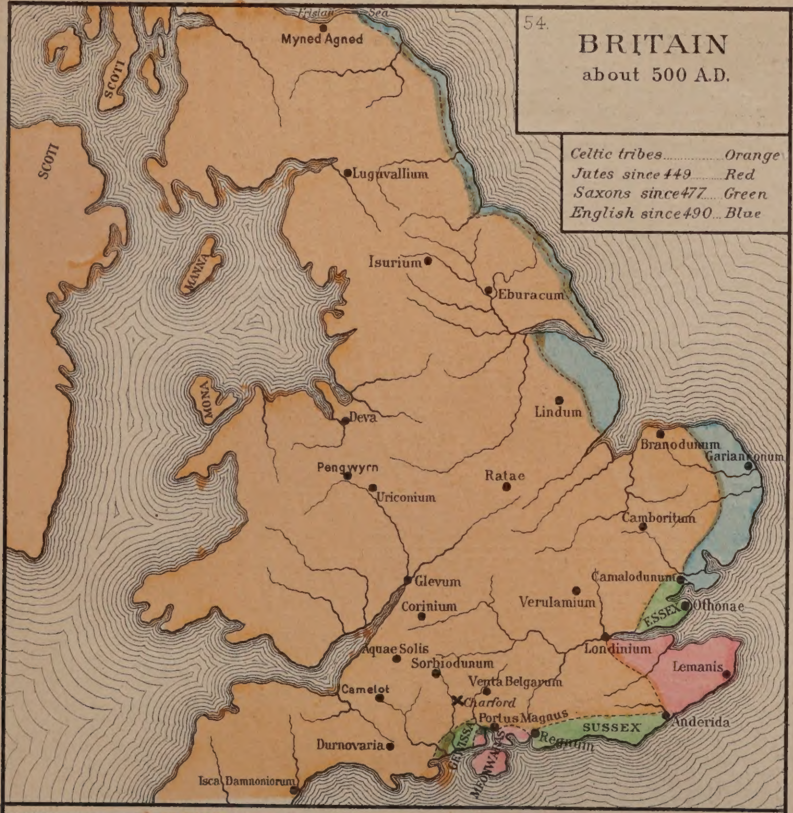
Next came the Saxons (477). Ælla, with his three sons, is said to have landed on the south coast. Here, between the sea and the Andreds Weald, he founded the colony of the South-Saxons, or Sussex.

In 495 Cerdic and Cynric led another Saxon horde, the Gewissa, who, after having been reinforced in 514, within five years conquered the whole coast between the Andreds Weald and the Lower Avon. Their colony was that of the West Saxons, or Wessex.

It was in the struggle against Cerdic that the British king Arthur acquired his fame. At Camelot, in Somersetshire, his capital, he gathered round him the bravest of his followers, who were known as the *Knights of the Round Table;* and for twenty-four years he fought bravely for his kingdom, and conquered the Saxons in twelve battles. He is said to have been mortally wounded in a war with his rebellious nephew, Modred, and buried at Glastonbury (about 555 A.D.). Of the beginnings of the East-Saxon community in Essex, and of the Middle-Saxon in Middlesex, we know little, even by tradition. The Saxons undoubtedly came over in large numbers; but a considerable body of their fellow-tribesmen still remained upon the continent.

The English, on the other hand, apparently migrated in a body, and took for their share of Britain the nearest east-coast. Their settlements extended from the Forth to Essex, and were subsequently subdivided into Bernicia, Deira and East Anglia.

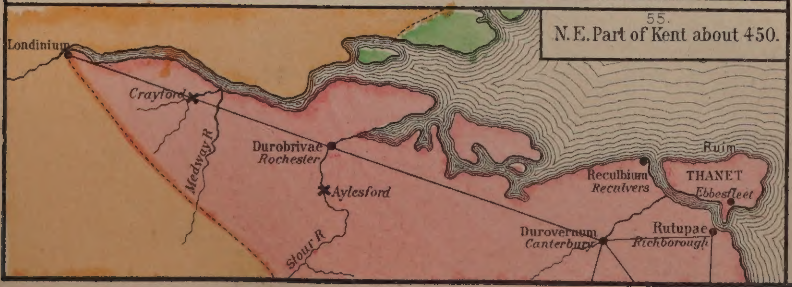
Thus the earliest England consisted of a mere strip of Teutonic coast, divided into tiny chieftainships, and girding round half of the eastern and southern shores of a still Celtic Britain. Its area was discontinuous, and its inland boundaries toward the back country were vaguely defined. Coastwise, the rivers and fens were their limits against one another. This oldest insular England is marked off into at least eight separate colonies, by the Forth, the Tyne, the Humber, the Wash, the Stour, the Thames, the Andreds Weald, and the Chichester tidal swamp region.



54.

BRITAIN
about 500 A.D.

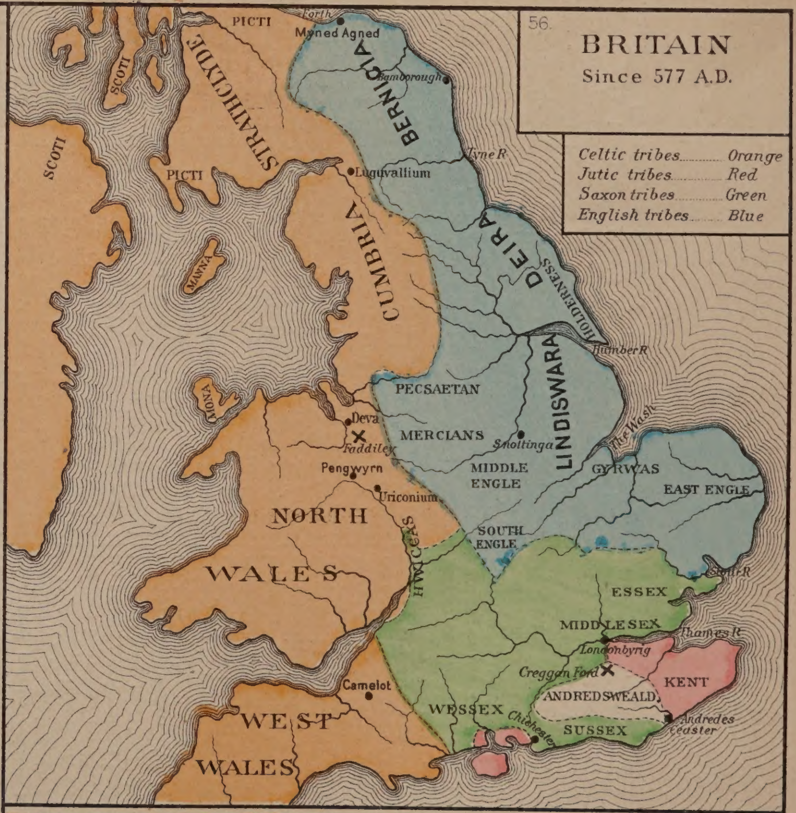
Celtic tribes.......... Orange
Jutes since 449.......... Red
Saxons since 477.......... Green
English since 490.......... Blue



55.

N.E. Part of Kent about 450.

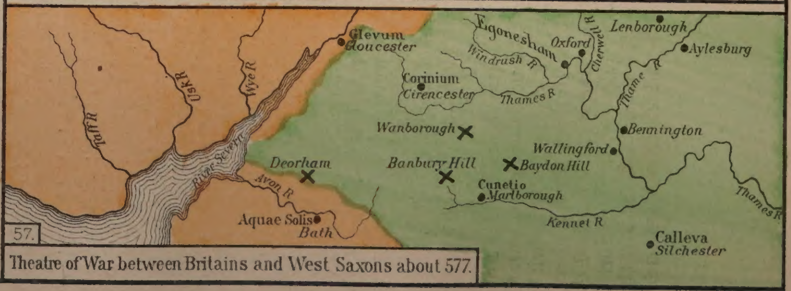
NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names:



56.

BRITAIN
Since 577 A.D.

Celtic tribes.......... Orange
Jutic tribes.......... Red
Saxon tribes.......... Green
English tribes.......... Blue



57.

Theatre of War between Britains and West Saxons about 577.

THE SUPREMACY OF NORTHUMBRIA.

During the last quarter of the sixth century, the strife of Englishman and Briton, though far from having reached its close, sinks into comparative unimportance. Sometimes conquests from the Britons are made with great speed, sometimes the English advance is checked by successes on the British side. The fluctuations of victory, and consequently of boundaries, between the English kingdoms are quite as marked as the warfare between the English and the Britons. Among the settlements of the invaders, small and great, eight stand out as of special importance. They are: Kent, Sussex (South Saxony), Wessex (West Saxony), Essex (East Saxony), East Anglia, Mercia, Bernicia, and Deira. There was, however, a constant tendency among these eight states to unite in groups.

As the Bernician king, Æthelric, entered Deira in triumph, the children of Ælla fled over the western border, while their land passed under the lordship of its conqueror. It was from the union of these two realms (Bernicia and Deira) that a new kingdom sprung which embraced them both.

South of the Humber, Æthelberht of Kent had established his supremacy over the Saxons of Middlesex and Essex, as well as over the English of East Anglia, as far North as the Wash.

Different, however, as the character of the two lordships might be, they were parts of the same movement toward larger unity, and with their rise the aspect of the conquered part of Britain was suddenly changed. Instead of a chaos of isolated tribes, its conquerors were gathered into three great groups.

Northumbria had reached what remained its final limits, from the Forth to the Humber. Wessex stretched from the line of Watling Street to the coast of the Channel; and between these was already roughly sketched out the great kingdom of Mid-Britain. The gathering of the invaders into these last-named kingdoms seemed the natural prelude to a fusion of them into a single England. It is indeed the effort to bring about this union that forms the history of the English people for the next 200 years, and that gives meaning and interest to the long struggles of Northumbrian, Mercian, and West-Saxon kings to establish their supremacy over the general mass of Englishmen.

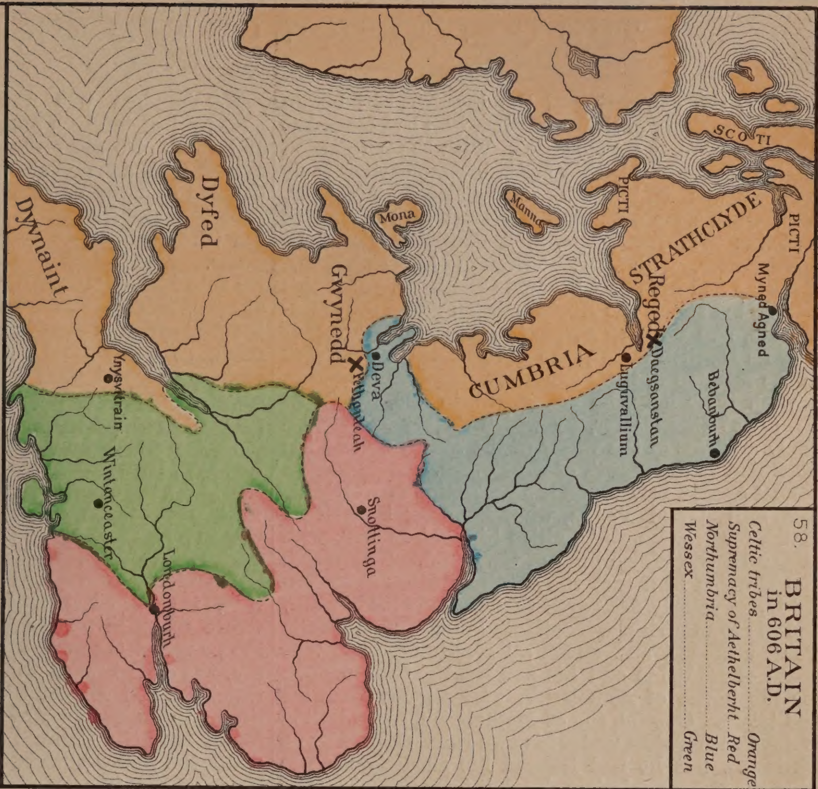
In this struggle Northumbria took the lead.

In 592 there reigned over that kingdom a most brave and ambitious king, Æthelfrith, the son of Æthelric, who from the moment of his accession took up the work of conquest with ruthless vigor. His advance became so threatening as to unite in one vast confederacy the whole force of the countries along his border. Hosts of Scots and Britons marched to the rampart of the Cattrail, which formed the boundary between Northumbria and Strathclyde, and here, at Dægsa's Stone (603), they were met and routed by Æthelfrith. This dissolved the confederacy which had threatened Northumbria, and, while the Scots withdrew to their far-off fortresses, the Britons themselves lay at the conqueror's mercy. Three years later, Æthelfrith rounded the Peakland (Derbyshire), and marched from the Upper Trent upon the Roman city of Chester. The Britons who came to the rescue were conquered, Chester fell (606), while the district over which the wasted city had ruled became Northumbrian. This victory of Chester divided the Welsh power in the North as that of Deorham had divided it in the South. Henceforth, the Northumbrians bore rule from sea to sea, from the mouth of the Humber to the mouths of the Mersey and the Dee. The Eastern half of England was now divided between Northumbria and Kent. The inevitable struggle between them was averted by the sudden death of Æthelfrith. Marching, in 617, against Readwald, King of East Anglia (who had thrown off the overlordship of Kent after Æthelberht's death in 616) he perished in a defeat at the river Idle.

The fall of Æthelfrith broke up, for the moment, the kingdom which his sword had held together. On his defeat Deira rose against her Bernician masters, and again called the line of Ælla, in its representative, Eadwine, to its throne.

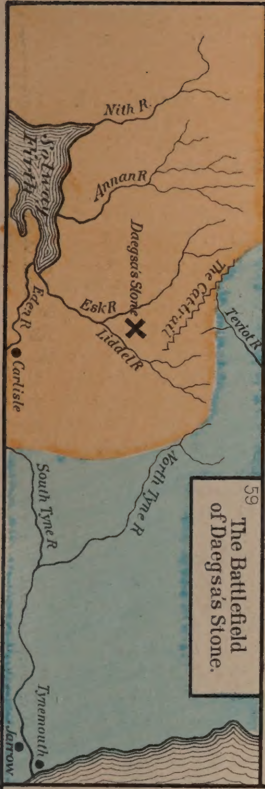
Eadwine, however, was as resolute to hold the two realms together as Æthelfrith had been; and he was no sooner welcomed back by his people of Deira than he marched northward to make the whole of Northumbria his own. As it had been originally created by the subjection of Deira to the King of the Bernicians, so it was now held together by the subjection of Bernicia to the King of the Deirans. Under this Eadwine the greatness of Northumbria reached its height. He was supreme over Britain as no king of English blood had been before. Northward, his frontier reached the Forth, and was guarded by a city which bore his name—Edinburgh (Eadwine's burgh). Westward, he was master of Chester, and the fleet he equipped there subdued the Isles of Anglesey and Man. South of the Humber he was owned as overlord by all the tribes of the invaders save Kent: and Kent bound itself to him by giving him its king's daughter as a wife, a step which probably marked political subordination.

He displayed a genius for civil government, which shows how completely the mere age of conquest had passed away. With him began the English proverb so often applied to after kings: "A woman with her babe might walk scathless from sea to sea in Eadwine's day."



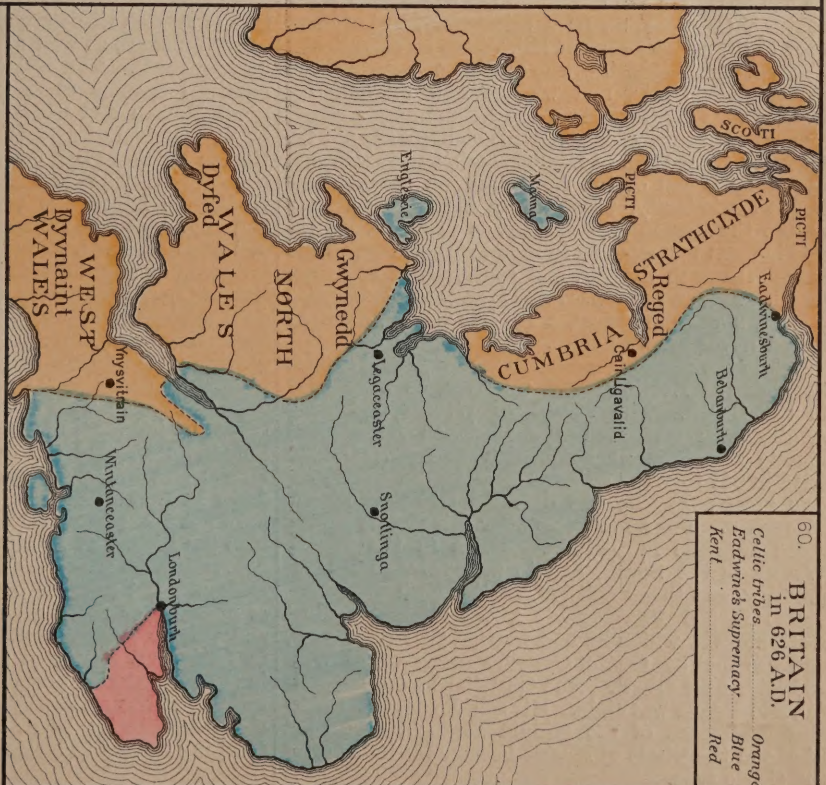
58. BRITAIN in 606 A.D.

Celtic tribes	Orange
Supremacy of Aethelberht	Red
Northumbria	Blue
Wessex	Green



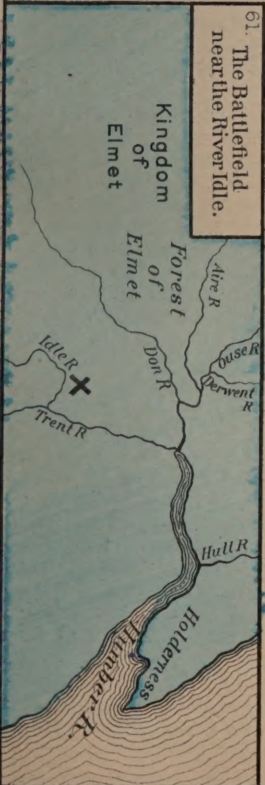
59. The Battlefield of Daegsa's Stone.

NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names Old English. *Modern Names.*



60. BRITAIN in 626 A.D.

Celtic tribes	Orange
Eadwine's Supremacy	Blue
Kent	Red



61. The Battlefield near the River Idle.

THE CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH.

In 597 the conversion of the invaders had begun by the preaching of St. Augustine, who had landed at the head of forty missionaries. With the permission of King Æthelberht, they settled. Among their early converts was Æthelburh, Æthelberht's daughter, who, when soon afterward she went as the wife of Eadwine to Northumbria, took Paulinus, one of the missionaries, with her. Through his endeavors, Eadwine and his court became Christians. But this conversion shook the Northumbrian power over Mid-Britain, and enabled Penda to seize the supremacy over its English tribes, who were frantically devoted to the religion of their ancestors.

With their help, he conquered, in 628, the West Saxons at Cirencester, by which victory Mercia, already mistress of the valley of the Trent, carried her dominion to the mouth of the Severn.

East Anglia, relying on the protection of Northumbria, still defied Penda, who, knowing himself no match for Northumbria, allied himself, in 633, with Cadwalla, the Welsh king of Gwynedd. The Welsh and Mercian host met the Northumbrians at Heathfield, and utterly destroyed them. Eadwine himself, and his son Osfrith, were slain. Penda and Cadwalla "fared thence, and undid all Northumbria." The death of Eadwine and his son left the throne open for the house of Æthelfrith, whose place Eadwine had taken. Oswald, son of Ælthelfrith, again united Deira and Bernicia under his own rule. Oswald was a Christian, but he had learned his Christianity, not from the Roman missionaries, but from the Irish missionaries at Iona, or Hii (near Skye), among whom he had spent his exile. Toward the end of the sixth century, Columba, an Irish missionary, had crossed over to the solitary rock of Hii, where he established a school of missionaries, who quickly evangelized the surrounding Scots, and whence now missionaries were invited by Oswald to the Northumbrian coast. In answer to this, Aidan fixed his bishop's see not far from the royal town of Bamborough, at Lindisfarne, the Holy Island of the Northumbrian coast. This Celtic Christianity, preached by Aidan, was utterly unlike the Roman Christianity, as preached by Augustine. It was wanting in moral earnestness, in the sense of human dignity, and especially in self-command. But on the other hand it gave to Christianity a force, a passionateness, a restless energy, such as it had never known before.

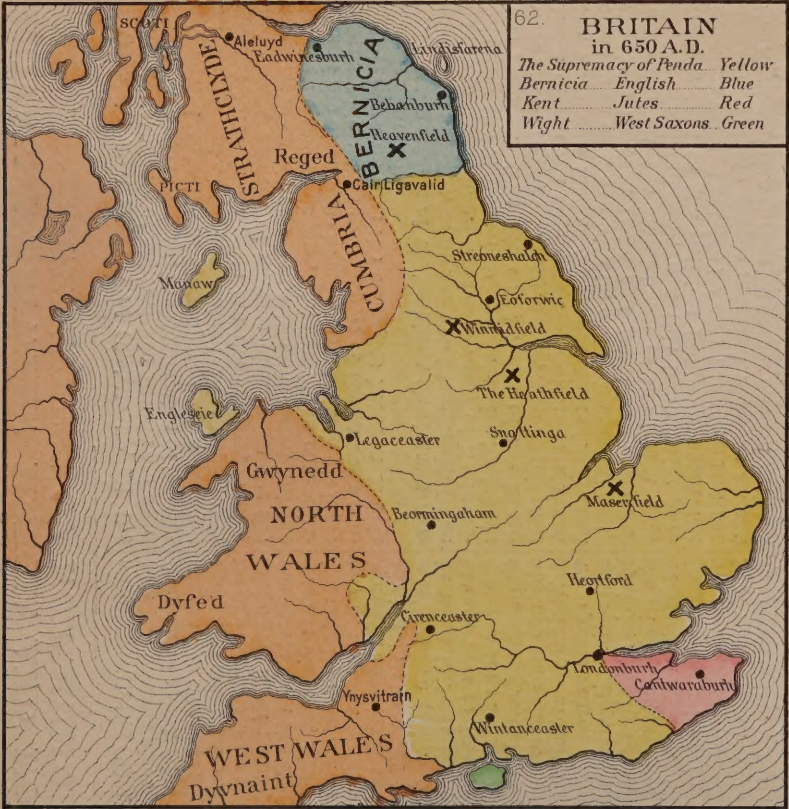
While the Celtic Church was making rapid strides through the North, Roman missionaries were busy in the South. The Kings of Wessex and East Anglia both embraced the Christian faith. But Mercia remained as heathenish as ever. Oswald tried in 641 to free Christian East Anglia from Penda's grasp; but he was defeated and slain at the Maserfeld. For a few years after this victory Penda stood supreme in Britain. Deira in the North, Wessex in the South, had to acknowledge his supremacy, and threw off the Christian faith.

But in 655 Penda made a last attempt against Northumbria, which he had harried year after year, and was met by Oswiu, Oswald's successor, at Winwidfield, near Leeds. The Christians were successful, and Penda was slain. His son, Pæda, the Christian ealdorman of the Middle English, succeeded him, and the whole of Mercia became Christian after the Celtic type.

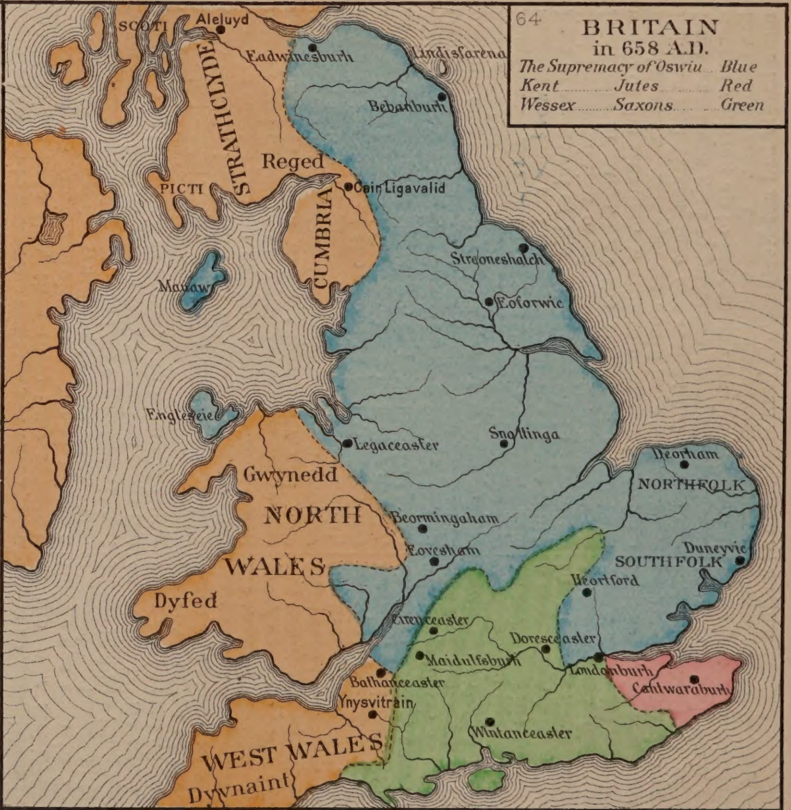
Heathendom was now fairly vanquished. The next trial of strength must clearly be between Rome and Iona. To allay the discord, King Oswiu summoned (664) a synod at Streoneshalch, (Whitby). It decided in favor of Rome. This decision not only gave England a share in the religious unity of Western Christendom—it gave her a religious unity at home. Archbishop Theodore now divided the country into bishoprics (670), which have been very little changed since his day. In 673 he called, at Hertford, the first synod of the Church of England, and thenceforth, at every important juncture, the bishops gathered around their prelate from every quarter of England to take council and frame canons for the rule of the Church at large. They met, not as Northumbrian, or Mercian, or Saxon bishops, but as bishops of a national church.

The synods led the way to the national parliament, while the canons which they enacted pointed the way to a national system of law. How strong an influence this work would exert on English feeling the next hundred years were to show. It was in vain, that, during that period, state after state strove to build up the fabric of a national unity by the power of the sword. But in spite of their failure, the drift toward unity grew more and more irresistible. If England could not find its national life in the supremacy of Northumbria or Mercia, it found it in the Church. Amid the wreck of kingdoms, the power of the Church grew steadily greater, because the Church alone expressed the national consciousness of the English people.

The change wrought in England by the introduction of Roman Christianity was immense and sudden at the moment, as well as deep-reaching in its after consequences. The isolated heathen barbaric communities became at once an integral part of the great Roman and Christian civilization. Even before the arrival of Augustine, some slight tincture of Roman influence had filtered through into the English world. The Welsh serf had preserved some traditional knowledge of Roman agriculture; Kent had kept up some intercourse with the Continent; and even in York, Eadwine had affected a certain imitation of Roman pomp. But after the introduction of Christianity, Roman civilization began to produce marked results over the whole country. Writing, before almost unknown, or confined to the engraving of Runic characters on metal objects, grew rapidly into a common art. The Latin language was introduced, and with it the key to the Latin literature—the heirloom of Greece and the East. Roman influences affected the little courts of the English kings; and the customary laws began to be written down in regular codes. Before the conversion, we have not a single written document upon which to base the history of Englishmen or Saxons; after the conversion, we have, besides the invaluable works of Beda, a great number of lives of saints, and a host of charters or royal grants of land to monasteries and private persons. These grants, written at first in Latin, but afterward in English, were preserved in the monasteries down to the date of their dissolution. It was mainly by means of these monasteries that Christianity became the great civilizing and teaching agency in England.

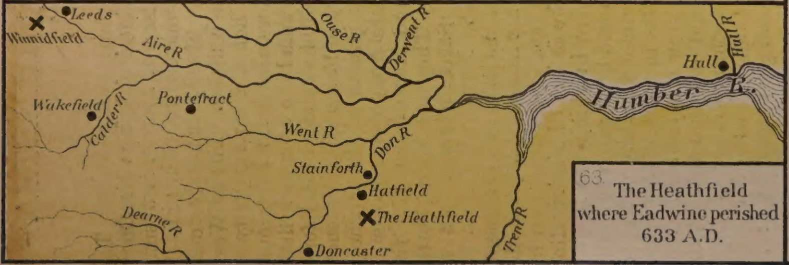


62.
BRITAIN
in 650 A.D.
The Supremacy of Penda... Yellow
Bernicia...... English...... Blue
Kent...... Jutes...... Red
Wight...... West Saxons.. Green

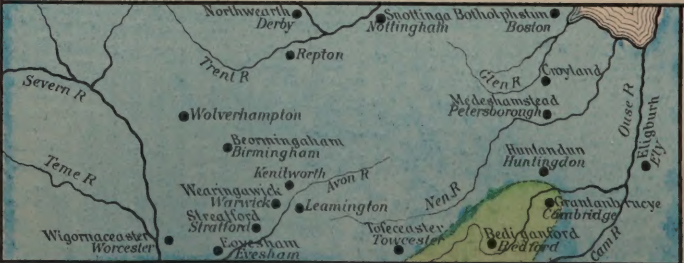


64
BRITAIN
in 658 A.D.
The Supremacy of Oswiu.. Blue
Kent...... Jutes...... Red
Wessex...... Saxons...... Green

NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: *Modern Names.*



63.
The Heathfield
where Eadwine perished
633 A.D.



65
The New Settlements
in Central Britain
about 666 A.D.

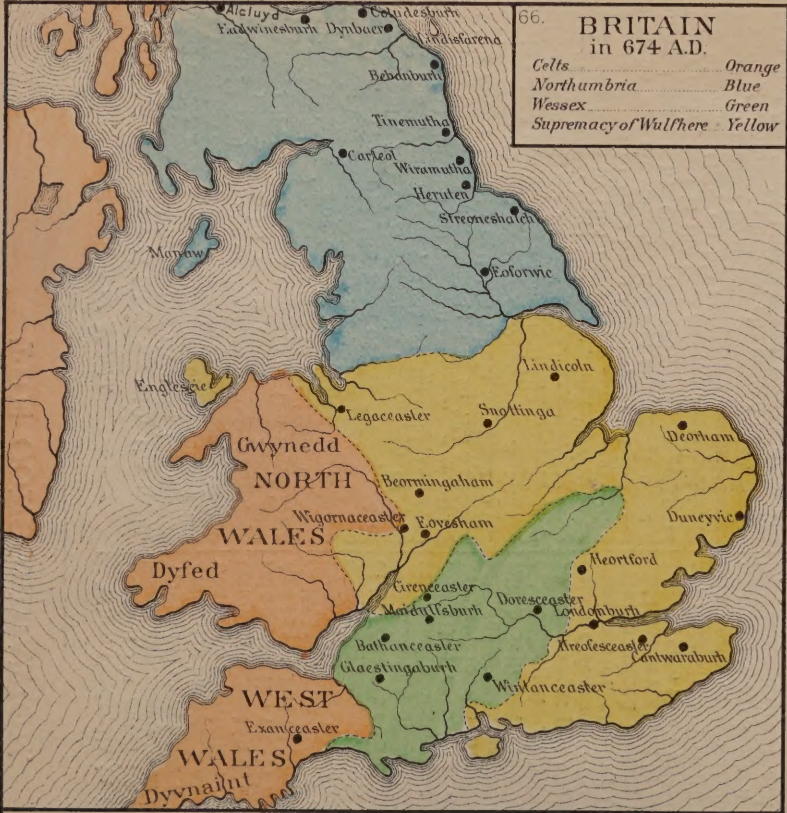
RIVALRY BETWEEN MERCIA AND NORTHUMBRIA—GREATNESS OF NORTHUMBRIA.

With the final triumph of Christianity, all the formative elements of Anglo-Saxon Britain are complete. We see it a rough conglomeration of loosely-aggregated principalities, composed of a fighting aristocracy and a body of unvalued serfs; while interspersed through its parts are the bishops, monks, and clergy, centres of nascent civilization for the seething mass of noble barbarism. We want but one more conspicuous change, and that is the consolidation of the discordant kingdoms under a single loose overlordship. The greater part of the seventh century is taken up with the struggles between Mercia and Northumbria.

After the middle of that century, Oswiu was sovereign over Britain, as no English king save Eadwine had been before him. The supremacy of Northumbria over the Britons of Cumbria and Strathclyde was restored. The Picts and Scots of the North were forced to pay tribute. Mercia, East Anglia, and Essex owned his supremacy. Northumbria itself, too, was finally made. The royal stock of Deira had come to an end, and with its extinction passed away the strife between Deira and Bernicia. From Oswiu's day all the Englishmen of the North were simply Northumbrians, and this inner unity gave fresh weight to the political influence which the kingdom exerted outside its own bounds. But the dream of a single people gathered together around the Northumbrian throne no sooner seemed realized than it vanished forever. Pæda had scarcely received from his overlord Oswiu the gift of the South-Mercian underkingship, when his death tempted Oswiu to annex his realm. For three years the Mercians bore this, then (659) they revolted, drove out the Northumbrian thegns, and raised a younger son of Penda, Wulfhere, to the throne. Under him Mercia suddenly rose into a greatness it had never known before. After 665, it reached from the Irish Sea to the Strait of Dover, and from the Humber to the Isle of Wight.

The industrial progress of the Mercian kingdom went hand in hand with its military advance. Its western forests and its eastern marshes were being cleared and drained by monastic colonies, whose success shows the hold which Christianity had now gained over its people. In the desolate fen country rose the abbey of Medeshamstead (Peterborough), and over the tomb of the pious Prince Guthlac the still greater abbey of Crowland. The abbey of Ely, as stately as that of Crowland, was founded by Queen Æthelthryth, wife of Ecgfrith, who in 670 succeeded Oswiu in Northumbria. Her flight from Ecgfrith's pursuit, and the shelter given her by Wulfhere, may have aided to hurry a fresh contest between the two kingdoms. But the aid was hardly needed. His success was long and unvarying enough to fire Wulfhere to a renewal of his father's effort to shake off that Northumbrian overlordship which since 659 existed only in name. As the master of all Britain south of the Humber, Wulfhere marched in 675 on Northumbria. His success would have united Englishman and Saxon into one realm; but he was defeated, and was glad to purchase peace and independence by giving up to his conquerors the province of the Lindiswaras. Peace would have been purchased more hardly had not Northumbria been engaged in a struggle with the Celts. For, isolated as Northumbria had become since the rise of Mercia, it was far from having sunk from its old renown, either in government or war. It still remained, for nearly a century, first among the English states. For although no more efforts were made to build up a supremacy, it showed itself resolute to enlarge its bounds by conquests from the Celts. After the conquest of the western districts, Northumbria stretched (674) uninterruptedly from sea to sea, from the Humber to the city of Carlisle. But when it crossed the Frith of Forth to chastise the Picts, its army was nearly annihilated in the wilds to the north of the Forth, at Nectansmere (685). The triumphant Picts pressed in upon it from the North, and their success woke the Britons to fresh revolt. But Northumbria reasserted its mastery over the Celts, and exchanged the claim of lordship over the Picts for a profitable alliance with them.

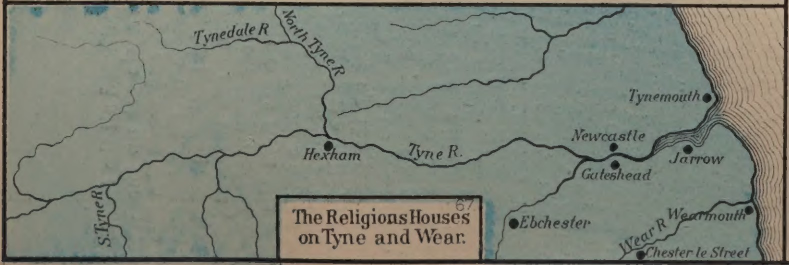
The 20 years following the defeat of Nectansmere were years of peace and order, in which the literary and artistic impulse, which had been given to Northumbria, alike by the Celtic and Roman churches, produced striking results. It became the literary centre of Western Europe. The learning of the age seemed to be summed up in a Northumbrian scholar, the venerable Bede (673–735), the quiet tenor of whose life was broken only by the signs of coming disorganization. He advised the erection of an Archiepiscopal See for the Northumbrians, and this was soon realized by the occupant of the See of York, Ecgberht, who procured from Rome his recognition as Archbishop in 735. The close connection of the new archiepiscopal see and the northern throne was seen in 738, when Ecgberht's brother, Eadberht, became king of the Northumbrians. Never had the kingdom shown greater vigor within or without. So great was Eadberht's renown that King Pepin sent envoys to Northumbria with costly gifts and offers of his friendship. Meanwhile Ecgberht had shown as restless an activity in the establishment of a school at York, in which he himself was the leading teacher. Scholars flocked to him from every country. For it was at a moment when learning seemed to be flickering out both in Ireland and Gaul that the school of York gathered to itself the intellectual impulse, which had been given to Northumbria by Bede, and preserved that tradition of learning and culture, which was to spread again, through Alcuin, over the nations of the West. The school, indeed, long survived its founder, for the glory of the sons of Eata proved but brief. After Eadberht's defeat by the Picts in 756, he grew disgusted with the cares of government, and two years later he and his brother Ecgberht both withdrew to a monastery, which they soon changed for a tomb in Yorkminster. With their death the peace of the kingdom disappeared. For fifty years there was a frightful anarchy. In spite, however, of this, Northumbria remained to the last the chief seat of English religion and English learning. Learning and the love of books continued to flourish at Jarrow and York, and at the close of the eighth century a Northumbrian scholar, Alcuin, was the centre of the literary revival at the court of Charlemagne.



66.

BRITAIN in 674 A.D.

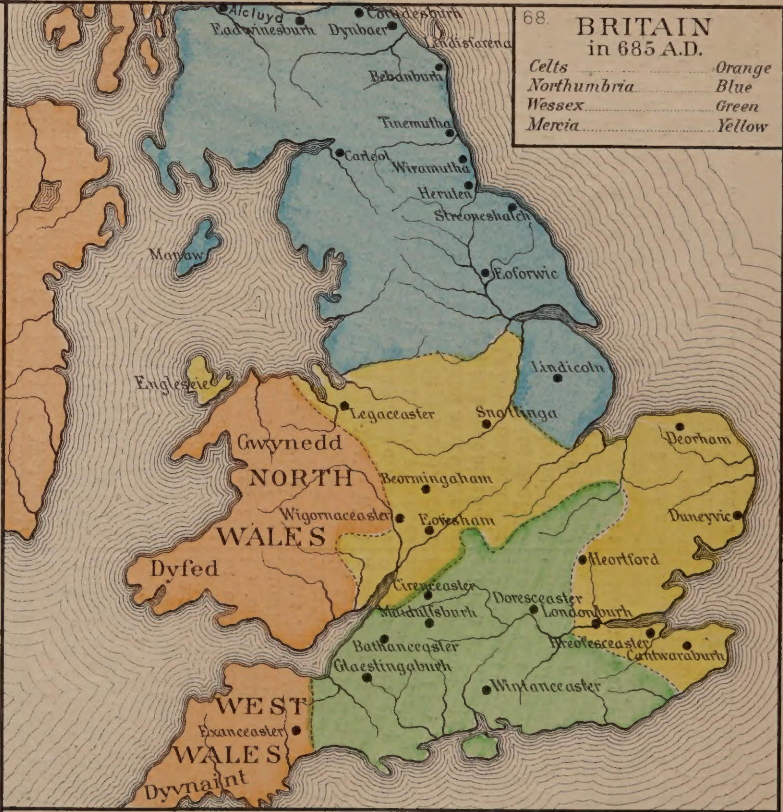
Celts	*Orange*
Northumbria	*Blue*
Wessex	*Green*
Supremacy of Wulfhere	*Yellow*



67.

The Religious Houses on Tyne and Wear.

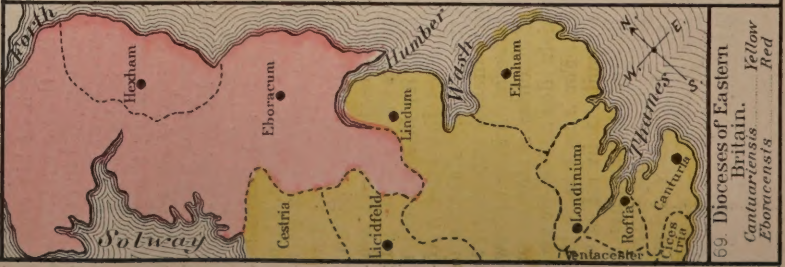
NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: *Modern Names.*



68.

BRITAIN in 685 A.D.

Celts	*Orange*
Northumbria	*Blue*
Wessex	*Green*
Mercia	*Yellow*



69.

Dioceses of Eastern Britain.

Cantuariensis	*Yellow*
Eboracensis	*Red*

THE CONSOLIDATION.

1. *Greatness of Mercia.*

The eighth century is taken up with the greatness of Mercia, which, having risen to the second place under Penda and Wulfhere, now assumed the first position among the Teutonic kingdoms. Æthelbald (716–755) was one of the most powerful Mercian kings. Since 726 he made continual raids into Wessex, till the siege and capture of the royal town of Somerton (733) made an end to the independence of the Gewissas. For twenty years the overlordship of Mercia was recognized by all Britain south of the Humber. It was at the head of the forces, not of Mercia only, but of East Anglia and Kent, as well as of the West Saxons, that Æthelbald marched against the Celts on his western frontier. For twelve years he was quite successful; but in 754 a general rising forced him to call his whole strength to the field. He met the enemy at Burford. A sudden panic seized the Mercian king, and the supremacy of Mid-Britain passed forever away as Æthelbald fled, first of his army, from the field. Not only Wessex had been freed by this battle, but Æthelbald's own throne seems to have been shaken, for in the next year he was murdered. He was succeeded after a short interval by Offa (758–796), whose reign of nearly forty years is the first settled period in English history. Offa, on his accession, found Mercia confined to narrow bounds.

Like Northumbria before, she ceased making war upon her Teutonic kindred, and turned upon the Welsh. Offa drove the Prince of Powyss from his capital, Pengwyrn, whose older name he replaced by Scrobsbyryg (Town in the Scrub—Shrewsbury). Carrying his ravages into the heart of Wales, he conquered the land between the Severn and the Wye. His dyke from the Dee to the Severn, and the Wye, marked the new limits of the Welsh and English borders. It still bears the name of Offa's Dyke.

Under Offa, Mercia sunk into virtual isolation. At his death (795) it seemed that the threefold division of England was to be permanent. Northumbria had definitely sheered off into provincial isolation, and the revival of Wessex completed that parting of the land between three states of nearly equal power out of which it seemed impossible that unity could come.

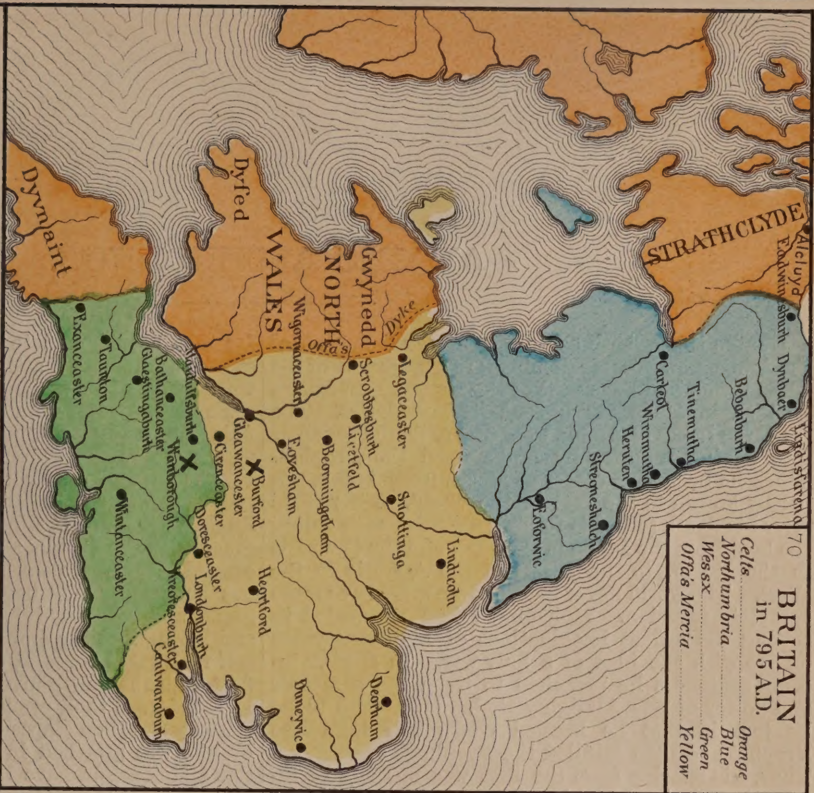
2. *Rise of Wessex.*

Since their overthrow at Faddiley (597), the West Saxons had been weakened by anarchy and civil war. So terribly had their strength been broken, that even the Celts had in turn assailed them, while both Northumbria and Mercia had attacked and defeated them. But, in spite of these losses, the real strength of the Gewissas had been in no way lessened. Their defeats had been simply owing to their internal divisions, not in the body of the people itself, but simply in their kingly house. Each fragment of Celtic ground, as it was won, seems to have been made into an under-kingdom for some one of the royal kin; and it was the continual struggle of these underkings against the headking which distracted the energies of the Gewissas. But whenever these causes of distraction were removed, each interval of order showed that the warlike vigor of the people was as great as of old.

When Ceadwalla in 685 gathered all the Gewissas beneath his sway, he soon again set up the West-Saxon supremacy over Sussex, and made the Isle of Wight his own, after a massacre of its inhabitants. Failing in his attack on Kent, he abdicated (688), and went on a pilgrimage to Rome. His successor, Ina, conquered Kent in 694. This conquest carried Ina's rule along the whole southern coast from the river Axe to the Isle of Thanet. Even London owned Ina as its lord. In 710 he attacked Dyrnaint, then ruled by King Geraint, and tore from it the valley of the Tone. He secured his conquest by the foundation of the fortress of Taunton (the Town on the Tone).

But in 726, after thirty-three years of a glorious reign, the increasing anarchy made Ina throw down his crown in disgust and withdraw from Wessex, to die a pilgrim at Rome. Æthelbald, King of Mercia, profited by the increasing anarchy which followed Ina's withdrawal. In 733 Wessex acknowledged Æthelbald's supremacy, and for twenty-one years it was ruled by his thegns. Æthelbald's defeat at Burford (754), restored the independence of Wessex; but the battle of Bensington (779), confined Wessex to the South of the Thames. This battle seemed to settle the division of Teutonic Britain into three equal powers, Wessex being now as firmly planted south of the Thames as Northumbria north of the Humber. But in 786 their progress was stayed by a contention for the throne between Beorhtric and Ecgberht. Banished from Wessex, Ecgberht took refuge with Charlemagne, and there he learned to understand the rising statesmanship of the Frankish race, and of the restored Roman Empire. The death of his enemy, Beorhtric, in 802, gave him the throne of Wessex. For twenty years Ecgberht was engaged in consolidating his ancestral dominion and conquering the last fragment of Celtic dominion in the southwest.

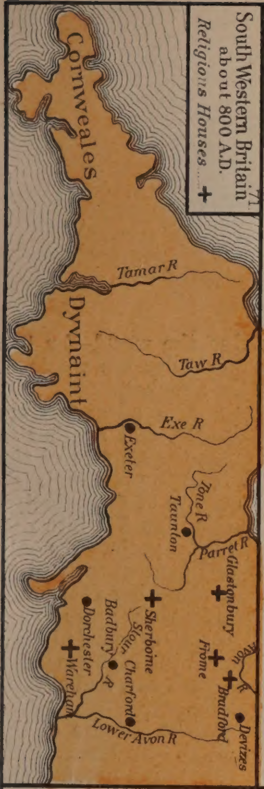
While Wessex was thus consolidating the South, Mercia sunk helplessly into the anarchy from which the southern kingdom had emerged, and when, notwithstanding this, the Mercian King, Beornwulf, in 825, attacked the West Saxons, at Ellandun, he was totally defeated, and Kent and Essex acknowledged the supremacy of the conqueror. Three years later (828) the West-Saxon army crossed the Thames. The Mercian king fled helplessly before it, and the realm of Penda and Offa bowed without a struggle to its conqueror. He now marched northward against the Northumbrians. Its thegns met Ecgberht on their border, at Dore, in Derbyshire, and owned him as their overlord. Thus, the West-Saxon kingdom absorbed all the others. But though all the Teutonic states in Britain had submitted to Ecgberht's sway, he had not become a king of England. His conquests had given him a supremacy over his fellow-kings, by which they and their people were bound to pay him tribute and to follow him in war. But their life remained in all other matters as independent as before. It was only by long and patient effort that this vague supremacy of the West-Saxon kings could develop into a national sovereignty, and the effort after such a sovereignty had hardly begun, when it was suddenly broken by the coming of the Danes.



70

BRITAIN in 795 A.D.

Celts	Orange
Northumbria	Blue
Wessex	Green
Offa's Mercia	Yellow

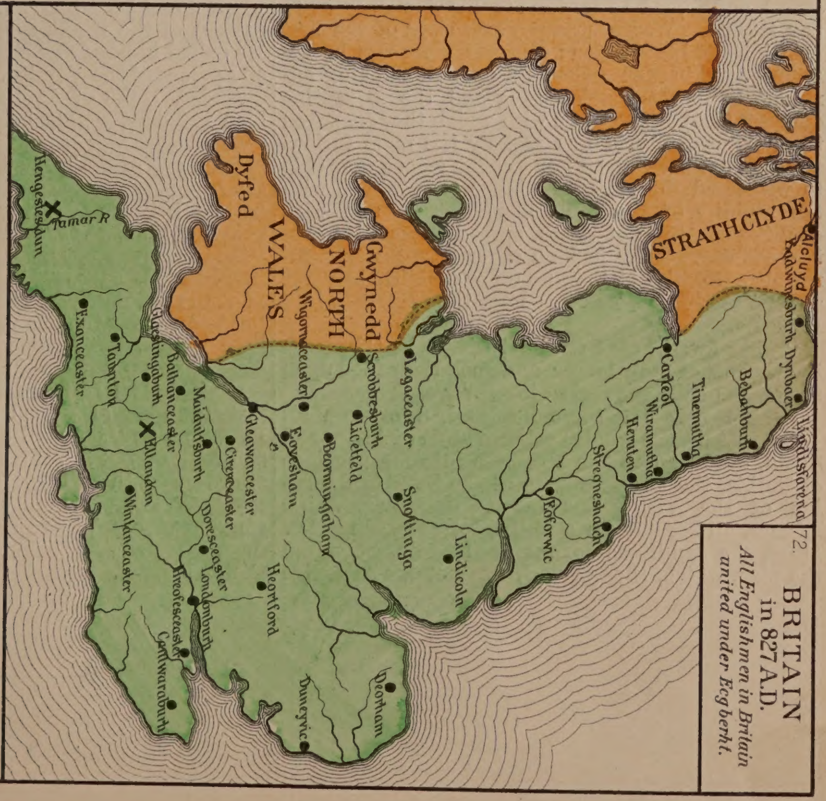


71

South Western Britain about 800 A.D.

Religious Houses ... +

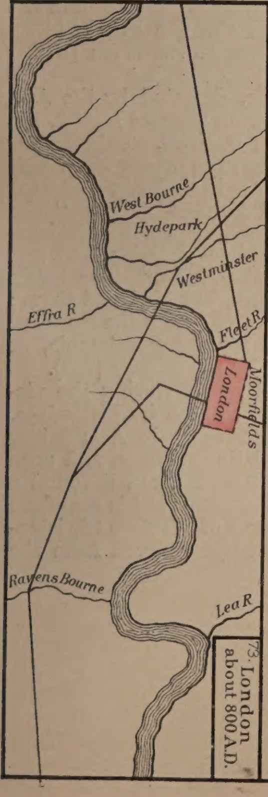
NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: *Modern Names.*



72.

BRITAIN in 827 A.D.

All Englishmen in Britain united under Egberht.



73. London about 800 A.D.

ARABIC ASCENDENCY.

During the seventh century, a new nation, that of the Arabs, now became dominant in a large part of the lands which had been part of the Roman Empire, as well as in lands far beyond its boundaries. The scattered tribes of Arabia were first gathered together into a single power by Mohammed the Prophet. When he began his career at Mecca (622) Arabia was hardly known to the rest of the world. Fifty years after his death (632) his followers were already ruling the land from the Indus in the East, and the Caucasus in the North, to the coasts of the Atlantic in the West. The world never before saw a quicker or more complete invasion. Mohammed had succeeded in setting the ardent imaginations of his countrymen on fire with the idea of a holy war. In short, vigorous sentences he preached to them the greatness and power of one Almighty God. Man could alone be just in that he learned God's will from the Prophet and then fulfilled the Prophet's ordinances. Thus, his mission from the first was not one of instruction, but of subjugation; unbelievers were rebels, who were to be smitten with the edge of the sword, and forced to conform to his doctrines or to pay tribute. War necessarily arose out of the first principles of his religion; and no sooner was he acknowledged in Mecca than he sent threatening admonitions to the Persian king and the Byzantine emperor (630). The scorn with which they answered the unknown fanatic was met by the most furious attacks; neither Roman nor Persian troops were able to withstand the masses of brave men which, with the rapidity of lightning, inexhaustible, and with exulting contempt of death, spread in torrents over the country. They had no other thought than fanaticism for the Caliph, no other delight than war against the infidel, no other hope than entrance into Paradise.

"They dwell," says one of their poets, "beneath the shadow of their lances, and cook their food upon the ashes of the conquered towns."

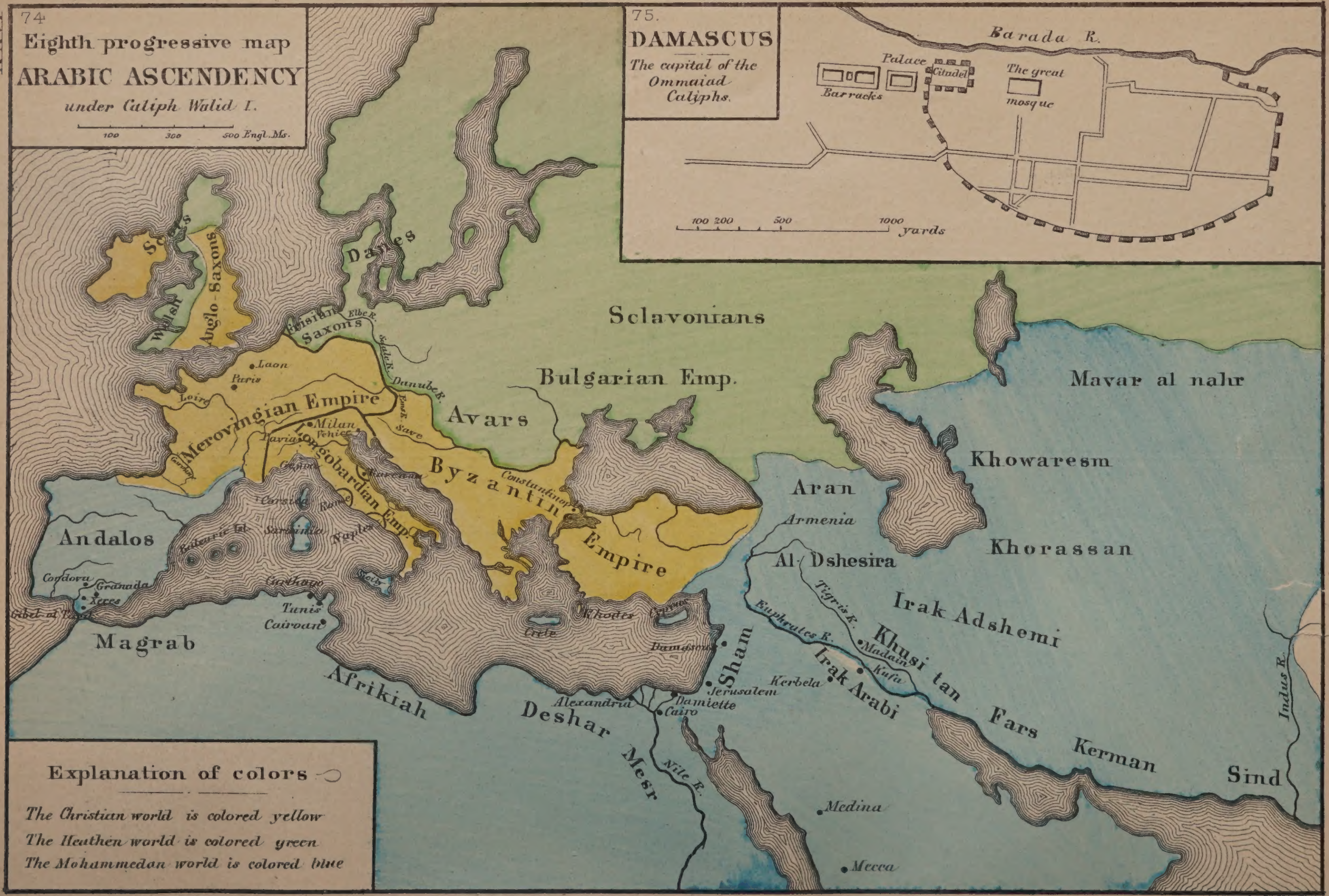
In the year 715 these hordes had overrun all Western Asia, the whole northern coast of Africa and Spain, even beyond the Pyrenees into the province of Gothia, the small remnant of the Gaulish dominion of the Visi-Gothic kings. Narbonne, Arles, Nismes, all became for a while Mohammedan cities. Muza, the ambitious conqueror of Spain, conceived the plan, which, though vast, was not too extensive for men accustomed to subdue the world—by two great simultaneous attacks to render the whole of Christendom subservient to the Prophet.

For this purpose an army was to advance from Asia Minor toward Constantinople, and another to march across the Pyrenees upon the Empire of the Franks; then from East and West to unite their triumphant forces in Rome, the centre of Christianity. Luckily for Europe, Muza at this time fell into disgrace with the Caliph, and his great project was only carried into effect piecemeal, and consequently without success. They began by attacking Constantinople, and blockaded that town for three years by sea and land. But the emperor Leo III. defended himself with great courage, destroyed the Mohammedan fleet with the newly-invented Greek fire, and at last, in 718, forced their army to retire.

Ten years then elapsed before the Empire of the Franks was attacked in the West. In Muza's time this attack might have been successful, because the Franks were then torn by internal discord. Since then, however, Pepin of Héristal had united the whole Frankish power, as major-domus (mayor of the palace) of the whole kingdom of the Franks (678). He called himself *dux et princeps Francorum* (leader and prince of the Franks).

Eudes, Duke of Aquitaine, defeated by the Arabian invaders, sought help from Charles Martel, the son and successor of Pepin of Héristal. This Charles Martel, one of the bravest warriors of any time, beat the Arabian and African hordes in six hotly-contested battles between Tours and Poitiers (732). "The people of the East," says one of the Spanish historians, "the German race, men deep-chested, quick-eyed, and iron-handed, have crushed the Arabs." The battle of Tours did not make changes, but hindered them; but before long the one province which the Saracens held beyond the Pyrenees, that of Septimania, or Gothia, was won from them by the Franks (755).

Christendom had suffered much during the victorious career of Islam; it had lost its birthplace, Palestine, and its earliest churches in Asia Minor and Africa; but it had saved its existence, and soon after the death of Charles Martel (741), it found a representative of its unity and power in his grandson Charlemagne, who, as Emperor of Western Christendom, extorted some acknowledgment even from the Caliph himself.



74

Eighth progressive map

ARABIC ASCENDENCY

under Caliph Walid I.

75.

DAMASCUS

The capital of the Ommaiad Caliphs.

Explanation of colors

The Christian world is colored yellow
The Heathen world is colored green
The Mohammedan world is colored blue

THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE AND ITS DIVISIONS.

The Merovingians rapidly degenerated, and the reigns of government gradually dropped from their palsied hands. Entrusting gradually all functions of government to their superintendents of the royal household (*majores domus*, mayors of the palace), they became mere puppets in their hands.

The race of the Pepinidæ acquired an hereditary claim to the office of Major-Domus in Austrasia. Pepin of Heristal, Major-Domus in Austrasia, became, by the victory of Testry (687), also Major-Domus in Neustria, and called himself henceforth Dux et Princeps Francorum. Although at first no change of dynasty followed this victory of the nobles over the popular party it set the rule of the Merovingians practically aside for that of the leader of the Eastern Franks, Pepin of Heristal. The son of the conqueror of Testry was that Charles Martel who saved Christendom in the battle of Tours (732). Pepin, the son of Charles Martel, saw in Rome the one source of religious authority which could give a sacred sanction to his rule. Rome saw in the Franks the one state which could save her from the ambition of the Lombards and the pressure of the Eastern emperor, and consequently the union of the two powers was soon drawn closer by mutual needs. In 751 the voice of Rome pronounced that the honors of sovereignty over the Franks should fall to the actual holder of power. Childeric, the last of the Merovingians, was sent into a monastery at St. Omer, and Pepin, lifted on a shield, on the Field of Mars, at Soissons, was declared King of the Franks (March, 752).

Next year King Pepin repaid his debt to Rome by crossing the Alps and delivering the Papacy from the pressure of the Lombards. He took from them the province of Ravenna, which he gave to the Holy See. This donation was the origin of the temporal power of the Pope. The city of Rome, however, was not included in this gift. Two important acts had been accomplished by King Pepin the Short: a revolution in France—the Major-Domus had become the sovereign; a revolution in Christendom—the Bishop of Rome had become a temporal sovereign. Charlemagne (768–814), on succeeding his father, Pepin, thoroughly developed his policy. At the urgent entreaty of Pope Stephen III., he entered Italy and conquered the Lombards, and placed their king, Desiderius in a monastery (774). Lombardy was not incorporated with the Frankish realm. Charlemagne called himself King of the Franks and Lombards. He also bore the title of Patrician of the Romans, which made him virtually sovereign of Rome, and extended his dominion from the ocean to the frontiers of Beneventum. His plan was to unite the fragments of the Western Empire. To effect this, he used two powerful sentiments—patriotism and religion. Thus, while he cherished the institutions which the Teutons loved, he protected the Church and carried the cross at the head of his army. He undertook fifty-three expeditions against twelve different nations. Gauls, Saxons, Danes, Saracens, all felt the prowess of his arms. Upon the pagan Saxons burning the church of Deventer, he commenced a war with them which lasted thirty-three years, and ended in their compulsory Christianization. True to his own and his father's understanding with the Pope, he invariably insisted on baptism as the sign of submission, punishing with appalling barbarity any resistance. Under such circumstances, it is not to be wondered at that clerical influence extended so fast: yet, rapid as was its development, the power of Charlemagne was more so. In the Church of St. Peter at Rome, on Christmas Day, 800, Pope Leo III. suddenly placed on the head of Charlemagne a crown, amid the acclamations of the people, "Long life and victory to Charles, the most pious Augustus, crowned by God, the great and pacific Emperor of the Romans."

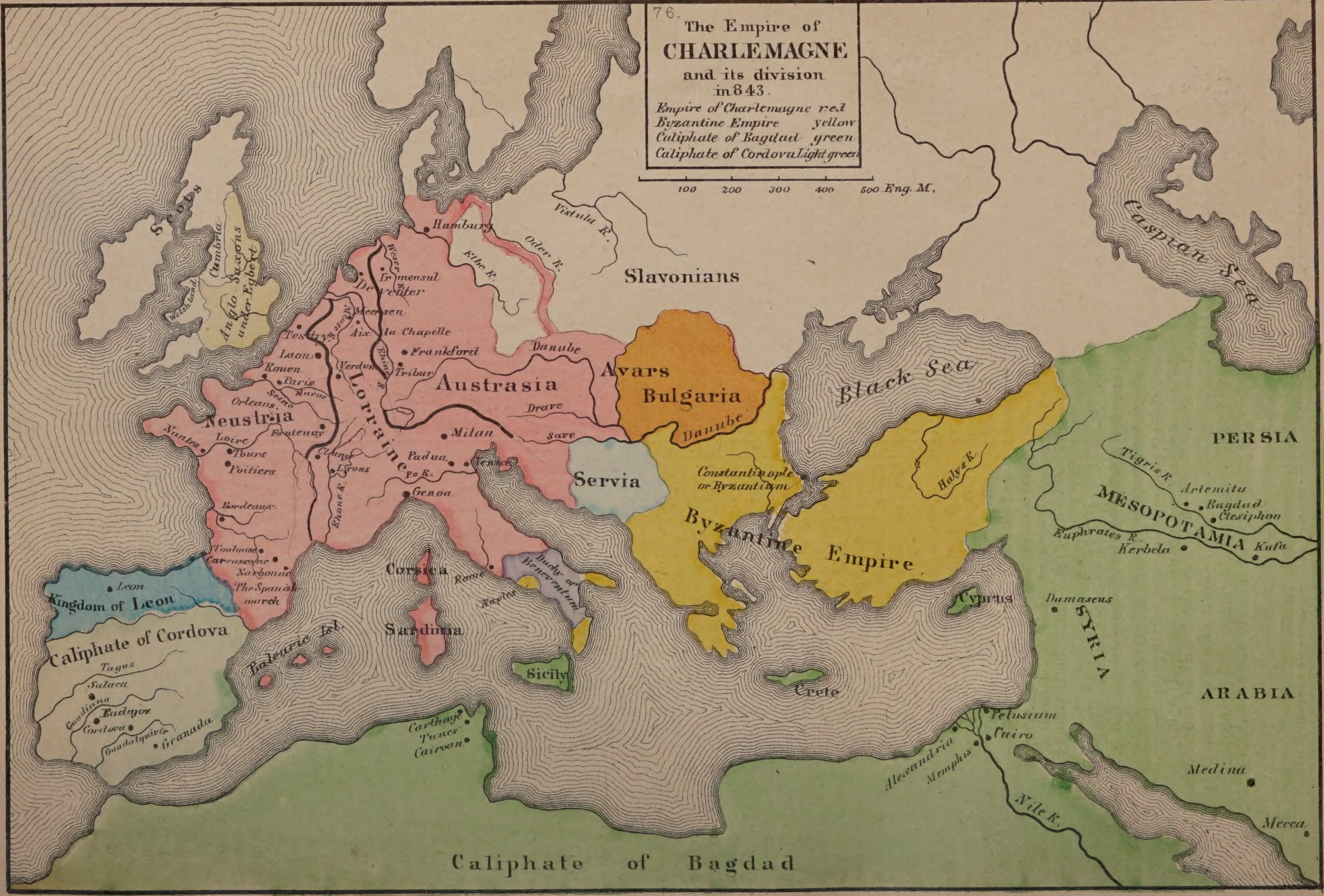
We now get two great Christian powers, the Eastern and Western empires, balanced by two great Mohammedan powers, the Caliphate of Bagdad and the Caliphate of Cordova. All the older Teutonic kingdoms have either vanished or have grown into something wholly different. The Vandal kingdom of Africa, and the kingdom of the Ostro-Goths, have wholly disappeared. The Visi-Gothic kingdom, cut short by Franks on one side and by Saracens on the other, survives only in the form of the small Christian kingdom of Leon. The realm of the Franks, by swallowing up the Gothic and Burgundian dominions in Gaul, the independent tribes of Germany, and the Lombard kingdom, has grown into a new Western empire. The work of Charlemagne perished with him. His feeble son, Louis (814–840), quickly dissipated this vast inheritance among his children.

Immediately after his death (840) a quarrel arose among his sons about the inheritance, Lothar, as emperor, claiming the whole. A battle was fought in 841, near Fontenay, in which Lothar was defeated. The war, however, continued until 843, when Lothar found himself compelled to conclude with his brothers the famous treaty of Verdun. In this partition treaty, the Teutonic principle of equal division among heirs triumphed over the Roman one of the transmission of an indivisible empire; the practical sovereignty of all three brothers was admitted in their respective territories, a barren precedence only reserved to Lothar, with the imperial title which he already enjoyed. A more important result was the separation of the Gallic and German nationalities. Their difference of feeling took now a permanent shape: modern Germany proclaims the era of 843 the beginning of her national existence.

I. Charles the Bald received Francia Occidentalis, or Neustria and Aquitaine. A corrupt tongue was spoken here, equally removed from Latin and from modern French.

II. Lothar, who, as emperor, must possess the two capitals, Rome and Aix-la-Chapelle, received a long and narrow realm, stretching from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. It had no national basis, and soon dissolved into the separate sovereignties of Italy, Burgundy, and Lotharingia, or Lorraine.

III. Louis the German got, in general, the country between the Rhine and the Elbe. Throughout these regions German was spoken. Under Charles the Fat, all the Frankish dominions, except Burgundy, were again united (884). On his deposition, 887, they split asunder again. We have now four distinct kingdoms: those of the Eastern and Western Franks (the forerunners of Germany and France); the kingdom of Italy and Burgundy, (sometimes forming one kingdom, sometimes two). Lotharingia remained a borderland between the Eastern and Western kingdoms, attached sometimes to one, sometimes to the other.


76.

The Empire of **CHARLEMAGNE** and its division in 843.

Empire of Charlemagne red
Byzantine Empire yellow
Caliphate of Bagdad green
Caliphate of Cordova Light green

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

In the long period of nearly four centuries which had elapsed between the Jutish conquest of Kent and the establishment of the West-Saxon overlordship, the politics of Britain had been wholly insular. The island had been brought back by Augustine and his successors into ecclesiastical, commercial, and literary union with the continent, and now the Danish invasions should pave the way for a political union with it. The Danes were a Scandinavian tribe, who first came in small bands, upon light boats, which they handled with extraordinary skill and boldness. Since 832 they levied tribute from all the North of Ireland. Their action in the Irish seas roused the Welsh to fresh hopes of freedom, especially as it was not as foes, but as friends, that they were offering themselves to them for a raid on their common enemy. All Cornwall rose against the West Saxons. But Ecgberht conquered the league of Danes and Welsh, at Hengestesdun (835), which victory won rest for his own Wessex during the rest of his reign (until 836).

His son, Æthelwulf, also fought strenuously in the defence of his realm, and this gained for it a little respite; for eight years the Danes left the land, and Æthelwulf died in peace (858). But these earlier attacks had been mere preludes to the real storm. When it burst in full force upon the unhappy island, it was no longer a series of plunder-raids, but the invasion of Britain by a host of conquerors, who settled as they conquered.

In 866 the Danes landed in East Anglia, and marched in the next spring across the Humber upon York. Northumbria at once submitted, and Mercia was only saved by a hasty march of King Æthelred. The Danes now turned to East Anglia, whose underking, Eadmund, being captured, was bound to a tree and shot to death with arrows. His martyrdom made him the popular saint of the eastern shore; his figure, in after times, adorned the window of many a church, and the stately abbey of St. Eadmundsbury rose over his relics. East Anglia was divided among the Danish invaders, and their leader, Guthrum, became its king. The great abbeys of the fen country, Medeshamstead, Croyland, Ely, were burned, and their inmates slain among the ruins. Mercia, to avoid invasions, acknowledged the Danes as its overlords, and paid them tribute. Within five years the work of Ecgberht had been undone. The whole country north of the Thames had been torn from the overlordship of Wessex, which now had to fight, not for supremacy, but for life. Its comparatively successful resistance may be set down to the energy of a single man, Ælfred, the fourth son of Æthelwulf, who, by the death of his brother Æthelred, in 871, became king of Wessex.

Ælfred was a sturdy and hearty fighter, and a good king of a semi-barbaric people. As a lad, he had visited Rome; and he retained throughout life a strong sense of his own and his people's barbarism, and a genuine desire to civilize himself and his subjects so far as his limited lights could carry him. During the first year of his reign (871) he succeeded in driving the Danes out of Wessex. But in 878 they renewed their attacks under Guthrum, and captured Chippenham, Ælfred's residence. The king himself, dispirited by his many losses, retired for refuge to the marshes of Athelney. It was a position from which he could watch closely the movements of his foes, and with the first burst of spring he summoned his men for a sudden attack upon the enemy. At Ethandun the fight took place; the Danes, being beaten, fled to their camp, where they were closely besieged for fourteen days, and forced to surrender. Their leader, Guthrum, was baptized and bound by a solemn peace at Wedmore. By this peace the Danes were to leave Wessex, and that part of Mercia which was southwest of Wattling Street; their chiefs were to embrace Christianity and receive the whole land beyond Wattling Street as vassals of the West-Saxon king.

This triumph over Guthrum gave Ælfred leisure to prepare for the re-conquest of the rest of the country. For this purpose he steadily got ready a new fleet and army. But he did more to gather England round him by doing what he could to restore to it the law and good government which seemed to have perished in the troubles of the time. Not less earnestly did he strive to restore learning, which had suffered most of all; and in the face of overwhelming difficulties he did so much, both by himself and through other scholars, that as English poetry is said to begin with Cædmon, so English prose looks back for its beginning to Ælfred.

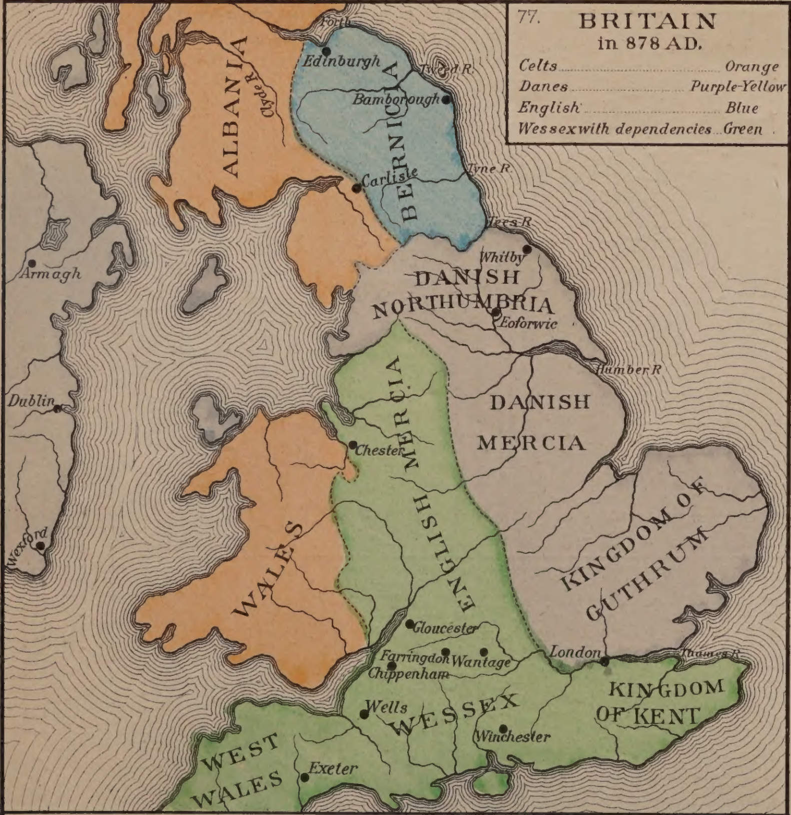
The amount of work with which he is credited is truly astonishing. He translated into English, with his own hand, "The History of the World," by Orosius; Beda's "Ecclesiastical History;" Bœtius' "De Consolatione," and Gregory's "Regula Pastoralis." At his court, too, if not under his own direction, *The English Chronicle* was first begun.

Death removed Ælfred (901) before he could carry out his plans of winning back England from the Danes, but his departure left the West Saxons as ready as ever to contend against the enemy. The history of the tenth century, and the first half of the eleventh, consists entirely of the continued contest between the West Saxons and the Scandinavians. It falls naturally into three periods:

The first is that of the English reaction, when the West-Saxon kings, Eadward and Æthelstan, gradually reconquered the Danish North by inches at a time. Each district recovered from the Danes was placed under an Ealdorman, intended to be a lieutenant of the national sovereign.

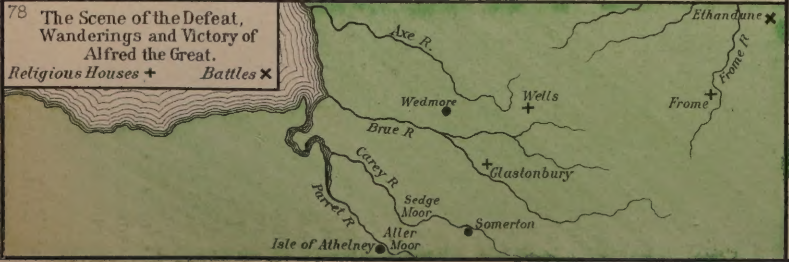
The second period is that of Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was probably the first Englishman who deserves the name of statesman. He was, during thirty years (958–988), the real ruler of England. Essentially an organizer and administrator, he was able to weld the unwieldy empire into a rough unity, which lasted as long as its author lived, and no longer.

The third period is that of the decadence, beginning with the death of Dunstan, in 988. Finally, under Æthelred (†1016), the ill-welded empire fell asunder, and the Danish kings Cnut (†1035), Harold (†1040), and Harthacnut (†1042), ruled over all England. But the result of the Danish conquest was the very reverse of what it seemed destined to be. It was not Scandinavia that drew England to it, it was England that was brought to wield a new influence over Scandinavia. The North was governed by orders from Winchester. Cnut's northern realms sunk into under-kingdoms, ruled by underkings.



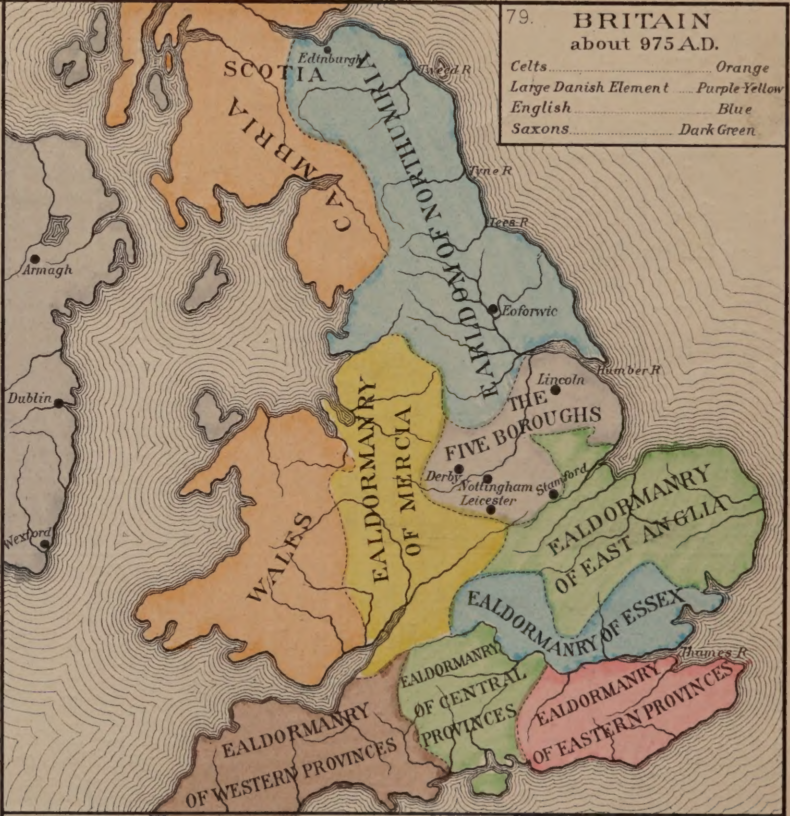
77. **BRITAIN**
in 878 A.D.

Celts	Orange
Danes	Purple-Yellow
English	Blue
Wessex with dependencies	Green



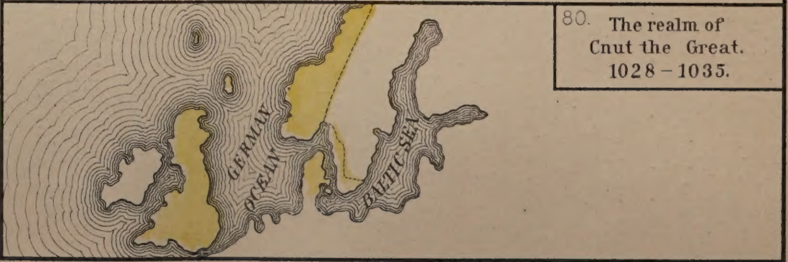
78 The Scene of the Defeat, Wanderings and Victory of Alfred the Great.

Religious Houses	+
Battles	×



79. **BRITAIN**
about 975 A.D.

Celts	Orange
Large Danish Element	Purple-Yellow
English	Blue
Saxons	Dark Green



80. The realm of Cnut the Great. 1028 – 1035.

THE WORLD ABOUT THE MIDDLE OF THE TENTH CENTURY.

We have explained before how 29 years after the death of Charlemagne the great empire split up into three distinct and independent kingdoms: those of Italy, Germany, and France (843). The split did not stop there. Forty-five years later (888), shortly after the death of Charles the Fat, the last of the Carlovingians, who appears to have reunited for a while all the empire of Charlemagne, this empire had begotten seven, instead of three, kingdoms: those of France, of Navarre, or Pampeluna, of Provence, or Cis-jurane Burgundy, of Trans-jurane Burgundy, of Lorraine, of Germany, and of Italy.

This disintegration continues through the greater part of the tenth century, at the end of which France contains actually fifty-five principalities.

The accession of the third race, the Capetians (987), ends this increasing disintegration. Hugh Capet, before his accession Duke of Francia, has at first little more influence than a duke. But, while the later Carlovingians were often at a loss to make head against the pettiest barons, these Capetians are powerful lords, capable of resisting by themselves the Count of Anjou, or the Count of Poitiers.

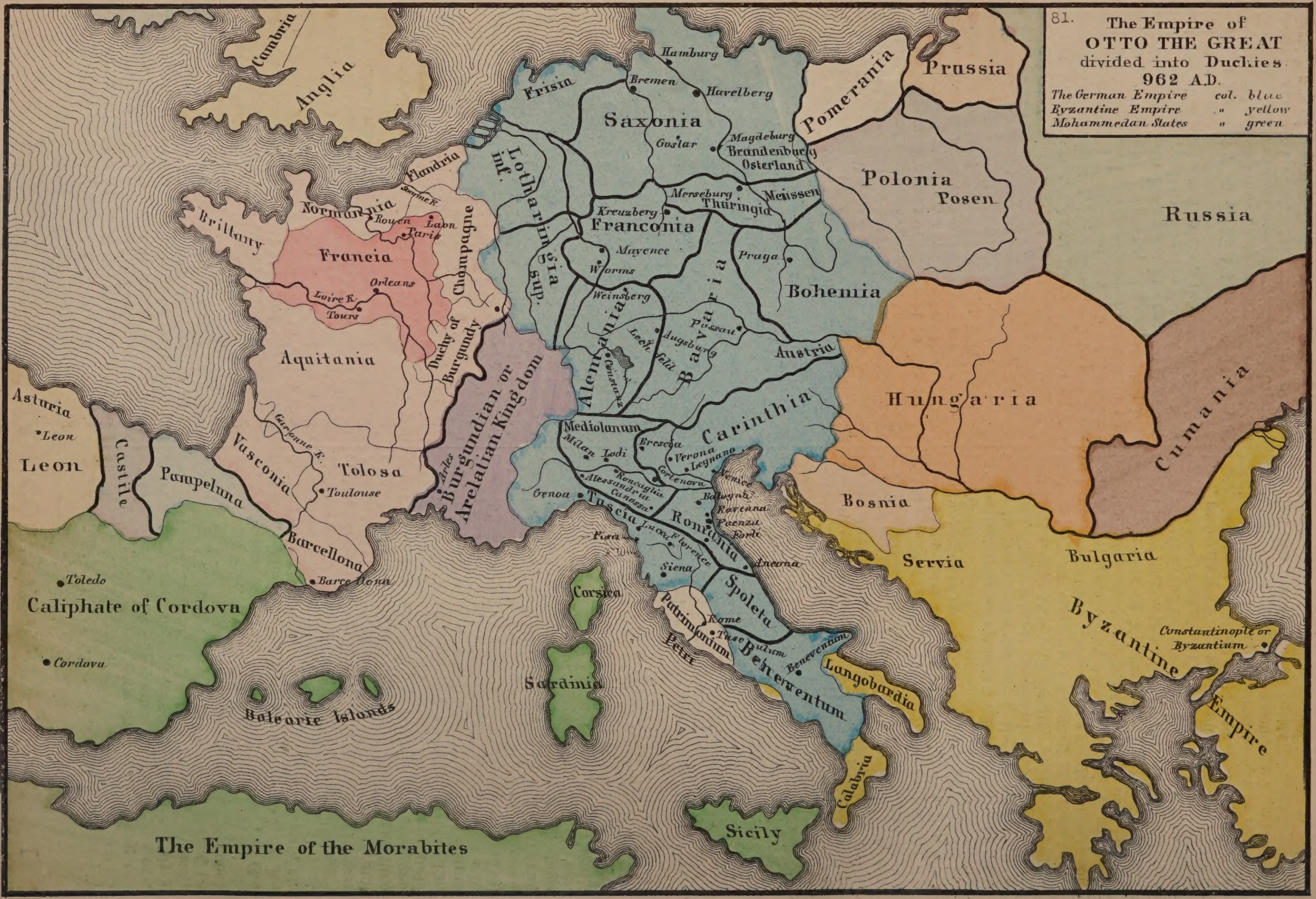
Gradually the kingdom of France begins to crystallize around the strong central power of the Capetian dominion (Francia). Germany and Italy had found such a strong central power nearly 25 years earlier. When the line of the Carlovingian emperors had come to an end in Charles the Fat, in 888, the rights of Rome and Italy of bestowing the imperial diadem revived, and there was nothing to prevent their choosing whom they would. The four kingdoms which this prince had united fell asunder: West France (henceforth simply France) was never again united to Germany; East France (Germany) chose Arnulf; Cis-jurane Burgundy and Provence (afterward the Arelatian kingdom) elected Boso; Italy was divided between the parties of Berengar of Friuli and Guido of Spoleto. The former was chosen king by the estates of Lombardy; the latter (and on his speedy death his son Lambert) was crowned emperor by the Pope. Berengar was finally recognized as King of Italy, and in 915 received the imperial crown. None of these emperors were strong enough to rule well, even in Italy; beyond it, they were not so much as recognized. In 924 died Berengar, the last of these phantom emperors. Hugh of Burgundy, and Lothar, his son, had been kings of Italy. Lothar dying, his young widow, Adelheid, was sought in marriage by Berengar II., the new Italian monarch. Rejecting the odious alliance, she was seized by Berengar, escaped with difficulty from the loathsome prison where his barbarity had confined her, and appealed to Otto, the German king. He listened, descended into Lombardy by the Brenner pass, espoused the injured queen, and forced Berengar to hold his kingdom as a vassal of the East Frankish crown (952). But Berengar was turbulent and faithless; new complaints reached ere long his liege lord, and envoys from Pope John XII. offered Otto the imperial crown if he would re-enter and pacify Italy. Everything smiled on Otto's enterprise, and the connection which was destined to bring so much strife and woe to Germany and to Italy was welcomed by the wisest of both countries as the beginning of a better era. Descending from the Alps with an overpowering force, he was crowned King of Italy at Pavia; and, having first taken an oath to protect the Holy See and respect the liberties of the city, advanced to Rome. There, with Adelheid, his queen, he was crowned by the Pope (February 2, 962).

The rule was now fully established that the German king who was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle had a right to be crowned King of Italy at Milan, and Emperor at Rome.

A geographical Western Empire was thus again founded, consisting of the two kingdoms of Germany and Italy, to which, at the expiration of the Burgundian line, in 1016, Burgundy was added. These three kingdoms now formed the Western Empire, generally called the German Empire, or, more accurately, the Holy Roman Empire. While the Western Empire had thus become Germanic, the Eastern Empire had become Asiatic. It is only in Asia that any solid part of territory is kept. The interior of the Balkan peninsula belonged only in name to the emperor at Constantinople, Servians and Bulgarians having founded independent states; only islands and fringes of coast belonged to the emperor. But they were almost continuous fringes of coast, fringes which contained some of the greatest cities of Christendom, and which gave their masters an undisputed supremacy by sea. If the eastern basin of the Mediterranean was not a Byzantine lake, it was only the presence of the Saracen, the occasional visit of the Norman, which hindered it from being so.

While the eastern basin of the Mediterranean was virtually in the power of the Eastern Empire, the western basin was in the power of the Saracens. But, though no part of the Saracen dominion was won in a shorter time than Spain, the conquest was never quite complete. The mountainous regions of the North were never wholly conquered. Asturia, Leon, Castile, and Pampeluna, which had been so slow in submitting to the Roman, which had never fully submitted to the Goth, now again became the seat of resistance, under princes who claimed to represent the Gothic kings. These independent territories grew to the south, and other Christian states gradually arose in the northeast of the peninsula. In the last years of the ninth century the Finnish *Magyars*, or *Hungarians*, began to count as a power in Europe. From their seats between the mouths of the Dnieper and the Danube they pressed westward into the lands watered by the Danube and Theiss. After appearing as momentary ravagers in Germany, Italy, and even France, they settled down into a Christian kingdom, which has remained a distinct realm to this day. The *Cumanians*, or *Patzinaks*, pressed into what had been the former Magyar territory. The Eastern Empire always strove to be on good terms with them, as they formed a barrier against both Hungarians and Russians.

Russia appears in the ninth and tenth centuries, first as a formidable enemy, then as a spiritual conquest of the empire and Church of Constantinople. Polonia succeeded in establishing its complete independence of either the Eastern or the Western Empire, and became for a while one of the chief powers of Europe.



81.

The Empire of
OTTO THE GREAT
divided into Duchies
962 A.D.

The German Empire	*col.*	*blue*
Byzantine Empire	*"*	*yellow*
Mohammedan States	*"*	*green*

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

Gaul was as much exposed to the Scandinavian attacks as Britain. At first, the Northmen confined their ravages to the valleys of the streams, and took care to remain always within reach of the boats. Afterward, when they saw how little resistance was made, they boldly marched into the interior of the country. They penetrated to the centre of France, as far as Limoges, which they plundered. They besieged Paris three times in twenty years. The fourth time, however (886), they were repulsed after a siege of several months. The last kings of the family of the Carlovingians being powerless to drive these barbarians away, bought them off several times with money. One of them, Charles the Simple, even made over to one of the Norman chiefs, Hrolf (Rollo), the province which has since been called Normandy (912).

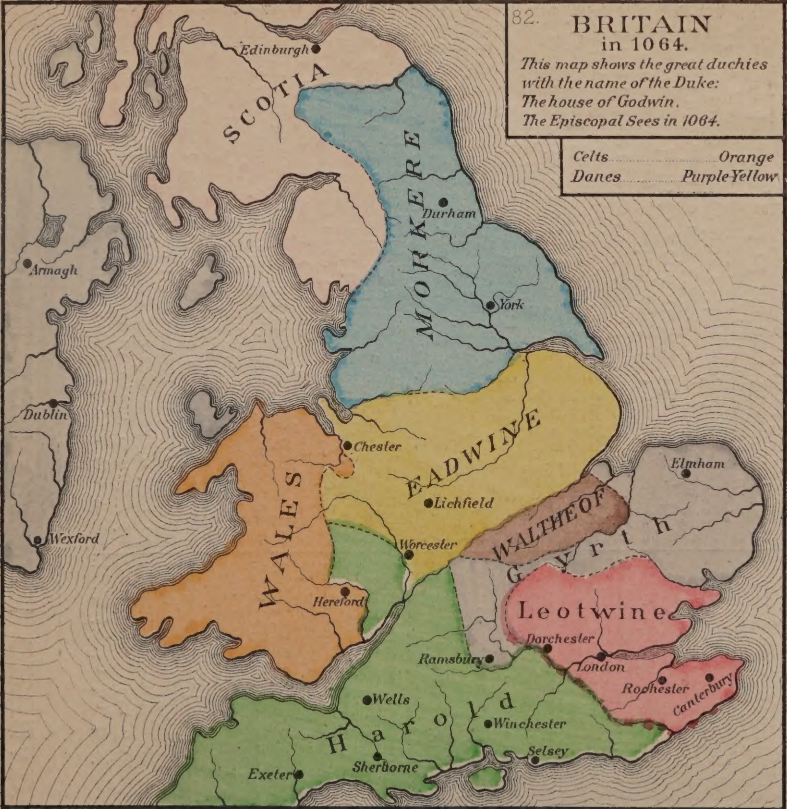
Many valiant deeds showed that Normandy was seething with vigorous life, and their alliance was sought by all their neighbors in turn. Æthelred, the King of England, when pressed by a fresh Danish invasion (994), sought for safety by an alliance with them. He married Emma, the daughter of Richard the Fearless (943–996). Thus supported, he proceeded to unjustifiable outrages against his domestic as well as his foreign foes. The Danes who remained in Britain he caused to be murdered all on one day (1002). The consequences of this deed necessarily recoiled upon himself. When the Danish king Sven landed (1013), he experienced no effectual resistance whatever. Æthelred had to fly before him, and seek a refuge with his brother-in-law, Richard the Good, duke of Normandy (1014). But Sven died in the first enjoyment of his victory. His son Cnut had no sooner appeared off the English coast, near Southampton, than the lay and spiritual chiefs of England decided to abandon the house of Cerdic forever, and to recognize Cnut as their king. With the sole support of London, and part of Wessex, Eadmund Ironside, the son and successor of Æthelred, who passed away at the opening of the new contest (1016), struggled for a few months against the Danish forces. But a decisive victory at Assandun (1016), and the death of his rival, left Cnut master of the realm. Cnut did not owe the crown to conquest, though his greater power contributed to the result, but to election, which now appeared as the superior right. Hitherto the Witan had always exercised it within the limits of the royal family; this time they disregarded that family altogether.

After Cnut's death (1035) we can observe a wavering between the principles of election and birthright. The magnates again elected, but limited their choice to the king's house. After the extinction of the Danish-Norman family, they came back to the English-Norman one; they called the son of Æthelred and Emma, Edward the Confessor, to the throne of his father, though, it is true, without leaving him much power. This lay rather in the hands of the earls, who were anxious to revive the old kingdoms, and did what they could to undo the work of Ælfred and Dunstan.

When Edward died without issue, the house of Godwin, which had previously secured three of the six earldoms into which England was divided, brought about the election of the mightiest of the earls—Harold, son of Godwin, Earl of Wessex. The very day on which Edward the Confessor died (January 5, 1066), Harold was elected and crowned without delay. This woke rivalry and dissension among the other nobles, and so laid England open to the ambition of Danes and Normans. There had often been rumors that Edward had destined Duke William of Normandy to be his successor; men asserted that Harold had previously recognized this right, and that in return, William's daughter and a part of the land, as an independent possession, had been promised him. However we may decide as to the details told us about his relations to Edward and Harold, it seems undeniable that William had received provisional promises from both. William submitted his claims to the English throne to the Roman See. Pope Alexander II. sent the Duke the banner of the Church. The Normans were still divided in their views as to the enterprise, but when this news arrived all opposition ceased.

The invasion of England by Tostig (Harold's brother) and Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, which was undertaken in concert with William, did something to weaken the English power of defence. At Stamford Bridge, where after half a century the place of battle was still heaped with the bones of warriors, many of the bravest English fell in the long day's struggle. On the third day after Harold's victory over the Northmen, William landed at Pevensey (September 28). His merciless ravages of the coast succeeded, as they were intended, in drawing Harold to an engagement. But, if forced to give battle, he resolved to give it on ground he had himself chosen, and, advancing near enough to the coast to check William's ravages, he entrenched himself on the hill of Senlac—a low spur of the Sussex Downs, near Hastings—in a position which covered London, and forced the Norman army to concentrate. With a host subsisting by pillage, to concentrate is to starve, and no alternative was left to William but a decisive victory or ruin. And so William and Harold, the French knights, and the national war-array of the English, met near "*the hoar apple tree*," as the Saxon Chronicle expresses it (October 14). Harold fell at the very beginning of the fight. The Normans knew how to separate their enemies by a pretended flight, and then, by a sudden return, to surround and destroy them in isolated bodies. It was the iron-clad, yet rapidly moving cavalry, which decided the battle.

The beaten army retreated on London, and there raised to the throne Edgar, grandson of Eadmund Ironside. But this choice gave little strength to the national cause. For, when William neared London, Eadgar himself was at the head of the deputation which came to offer the crown to the Norman Duke, and at Christmas, 1066, he was crowned at Westminster by Archbishop Ealdred. As yet, indeed, the greater part of England remained quietly aloof from him. But to the east of a line which stretched from the Wash to Pool Harbor in Dorset, his rule was unquestioned, and after the campaign of 1068, England, as far as the Tees, seemed to lie quietly at his feet. But now England suddenly arose as one man. William, although taken by surprise, was equal to the occasion. A series of campaigns began which left him, five years after the battle of Hastings, undisputed master of England.

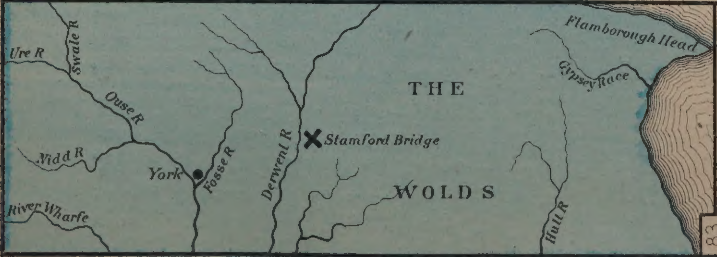


82\.

BRITAIN in 1064.

This map shows the great duchies with the name of the Duke: The house of Godwin. The Episcopal Sees in 1064.

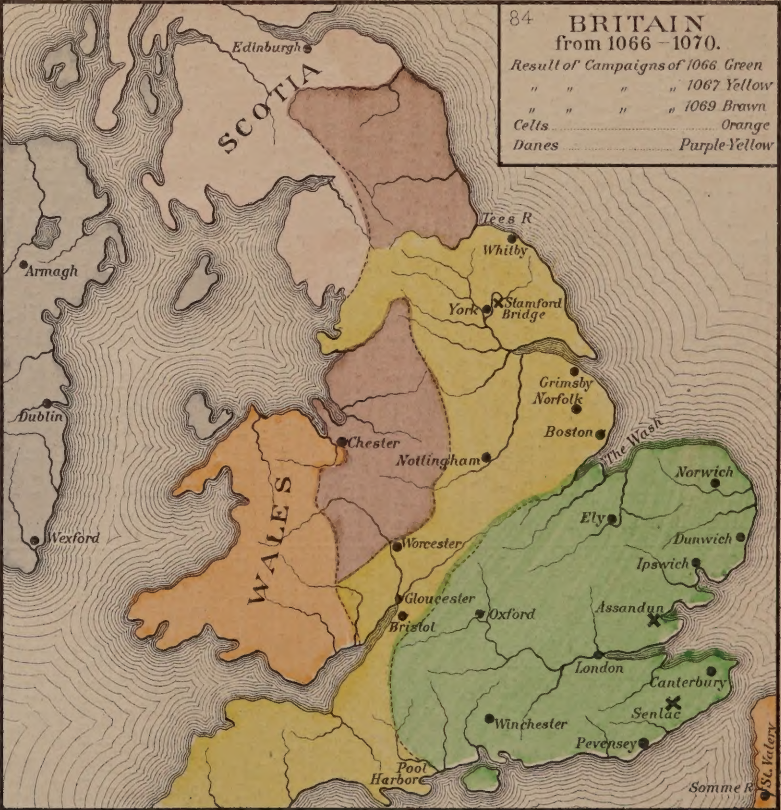
Celts .... *Orange*
Danes .... *Purple-Yellow*



83

Neighborhood of York

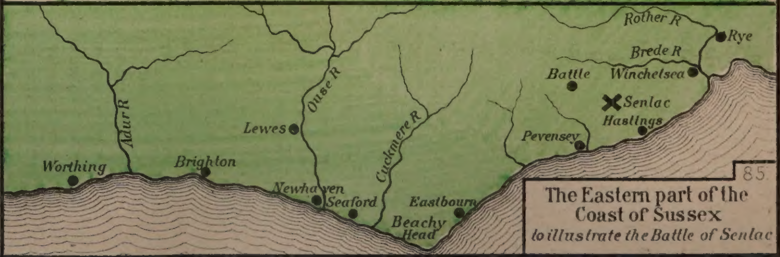
to illustrate the Battle of Stamford Bridge.



84

BRITAIN from 1066 – 1070.

Result of Campaigns of 1066 Green
" " " " 1067 Yellow
" " " " 1069 Brown
Celts .... *Orange*
Danes .... *Purple-Yellow*



85

The Eastern part of the Coast of Sussex

to illustrate the Battle of Senlac

THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES.

When the first thousand years of our era were drawing to a close, the people in every country in Europe looked with certainty for the destruction of the world. But the year 1000 passed quietly, like an ordinary year; the sun was not extinguished, nor the earth rent. But during the great tribulation preceding that year men's thoughts had been turned toward Heaven. A mystical excitement, full of contempt of this world, pervaded the nations during the whole of the eleventh century. Pilgrims became more numerous than ever before, especially to Palestine, the land hallowed by the footsteps of Christ, and, arrived in Jerusalem, they were horror-struck that unbelieving Mohammedans were desecrating the holy places. Anger against the unbeliever arose of its own accord, and war against the false religion appeared to be the most praiseworthy action. If from the seventh to the ninth centuries Islam had harassed the Christian nations by its vigorous aggressions, now in the eleventh century came the day of reckoning, in a no less violent attack, on the part of Christendom, upon the whole Mohammedan world. But toward the end of the century the Mohammedans got the better of the Christians in Asia Minor. The Eastern emperor, Alexius, sent the most pressing entreaties for help to Pope Urban II., saying, that if he did not wish to see Christianity perish in the East, he must render him assistance.

After making a preliminary announcement of the emperor's demand, and of his own intentions, in a council at Piacenza, the Pope crossed the Alps (November, 1094), and held a great council at Clermont; at the end of this he called upon the people assembled to aid him in delivering the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels. More than 300,000 men fastened the cross upon their shoulders, and in a few months the cry, "*God wills it,*" had flown from Clermont over half Europe. Everywhere the greatest activity prevailed; princes assembled their vassals, knights their retainers; Godfrey of Bouillon was collecting an army in Lorraine; Hugo of Vermandois, Robert of Flanders, and Robert of Normandy marshalled the French, Normans, and English; Raymond of Toulouse led the Provençals and Gascons; and Bohemond of Tarent, the Norman knights of Naples. Pope Urban II. had secured to himself the leading position in the enterprise by naming the Bishop Adhemar of Puy as his Legate and representative with the army, and by officially announcing to Alexius the forthcoming help against the Turks.

The Crusade was opened by an irregular van of about 300,000 men, who, in four bands, marched down the Danube to Constantinople. They were led by Walter the Penniless, Peter the Hermit, and others. Two bands only reached Constantinople (the other two having been destroyed by the Hungarians), and crossed over into Asia, where they were ultimately cut to pieces by the Turks.

The regular army, consisting of six different divisions, led by the princes mentioned above, held, in May, 1097, its first muster in the plains of Bithynia. Thence they went toward Nicæa, which fell into their hands July, 1097. They then marched diagonally across Asia Minor; then, turning southward, they attacked the most important and best fortified of all the Syrian towns, Antioch. Seven months were consumed in its siege. At length (June, 1098,) they took it, to be besieged in their turn by 200,000 Saracens. On June 28th, this vast host was defeated before the walls of Antioch, and the way was then open to Jerusalem. And now the army, in fact without head or leader, rushed wildly on toward its original destination. On June 7, 1099, the town was surrounded, and taken by storm on July 15th. The Christian fury against the infidels vented itself in a sanguinary struggle; they then, with tears of rapture, and in a state of ecstatic piety, threw themselves down to pray at the Holy Sepulchre, surrounded with heaps of the slain. After eight days passed in the intoxication of victory, the princes met to choose a ruler. They offered the crown of the new kingdom to Raymond of Toulouse, who, however, declared that he was unworthy to wear an earthly crown in so holy a place. At last they applied to Godfrey of Bouillon, who, although he, like Raymond, refused the title of king, accepted the office, and called himself Protector of the Holy Sepulchre. He succeeded in beating an Egyptian army near Ascalon, and thus secured the southern frontier of the kingdom. After that, however, it became impossible to restrain the masses of pilgrims who, after the fulfilment of their vow, longed to return home.

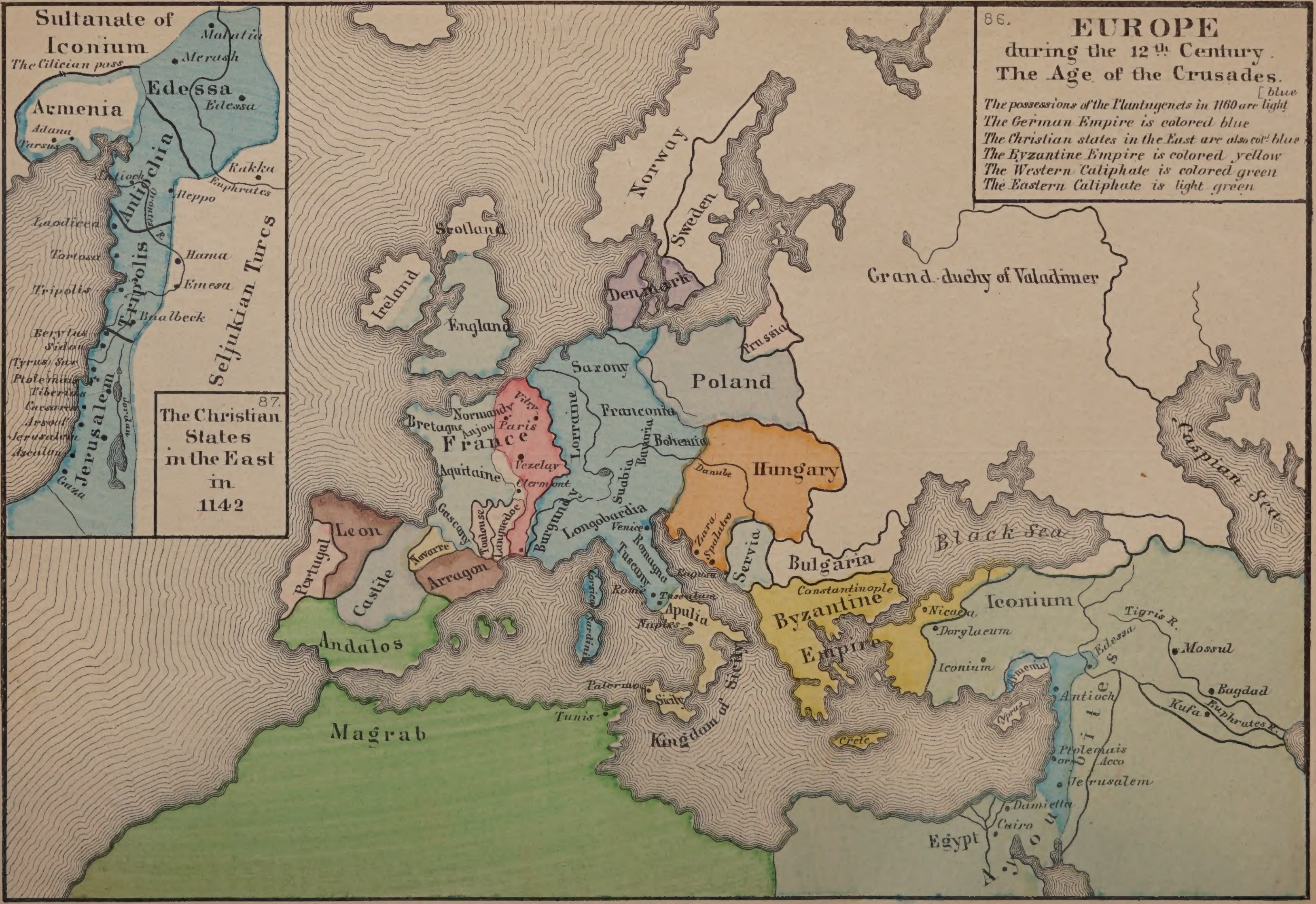
The political results of this first crusade were two:

I. The restoration of the best part of Asia Minor to the Eastern Empire.

II. The conversion of Syria into the feudal *kingdom of Jerusalem,* chiefly French, with vassal countries: Edessa, Antiochia, and afterward, Tripoli.

The king of Jerusalem had no easy task. With an army consisting at the most of 7,000 horse and 5,000 foot, he could hardly keep his own in the midst of a scarcely conquered hostile population, and surrounded by powerful and naturally implacable foes. Especially since the Turkish possessions from the Tigris to the Lebanon were all united by Noor-ed-Deen, the Emir of Mosul. His taking of Edessa in 1146 caused the Second Crusade. Emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. of France were the leaders. Misled by Greek scouts, the army of Conrad was cut to pieces by the Turks near Iconium; that of Louis was wrecked among the defiles of the Pisidian mountains. The relics of the two armies made their way into Syria, where, in co-operation with the Christian princes of Antioch and Jerusalem, they laid siege to Damascus, which they were unable to take. It was an utter failure, and in 1149 emperor and king returned to the West, having lost in two years about a million of men.

A still greater enemy of the Christians arose in Salah-ed-Deen (Saladin), the founder of the dynasty of the Ayoubites, who, since 1184, was sole ruler from the sources of the Nile as far as the river Tigris. He began the last decisive attack upon the Christians. On July 5, 1187, the Christian army was annihilated by him at Tiberias. The terrific news of the defeat spread through the land, destroying all remaining strength or courage. Towns and castles opened their gates wherever the victorious troops appeared. Jerusalem, which, as a holy city, Saladin wished to take by treaty, capitulated on October 3d. Saladin's career of victory did not yet extend as far as Tripoli and Antioch, but the kingdom of Jerusalem, the pride and centre of the Christian rule, was lost.



86.

EUROPE
during the 12th Century.
The Age of the Crusades.

The possessions of the Plantagenets in 1160 are light blue
The German Empire is colored blue
The Christian states in the East are also col.d blue
The Byzantine Empire is colored yellow
The Western Caliphate is colored green
The Eastern Caliphate is light green

87.

The Christian States in the East in 1142

THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

LATIN EMPIRE—CRUSADE AGAINST THE ALBIGENSES.

The Crusades had left their mark upon the world, but no such mark as their authors had intended. The Holy Land had not been recovered from the infidels; the Saracens had not been converted. It had been found practically impossible for Christians to treat the Moslem in the way the children of Israel were taught to treat the Canaanites—as men with whom no peace was to be made. The Christians of that day adopted too easily a very different principle, and regarded their enemies, for some time, as men with whom no faith was to be kept. But even this was a rule impossible to be maintained. Relations necessarily grew up between the opposing combatants, and ere long the commercial cities of the Mediterranean found the infidel a very good customer. They longed to get possession of Constantinople, on account of its commanding position between Europe and Asia, which offered, to whoever should seize it, a monopoly of commerce, and the sovereignty of the seas. Of all the Latins, the Venetians alone could effect this great enterprise, unless their rivals in the Levantine trade, the Genoese, anticipated them.

At the instance of Pope Innocent III. a Crusade, directed originally against Egypt, was undertaken by powerful French barons, assisted by Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat. Transports were obtained from the Venetians, by agreeing to take Zara, a city of Dalmatia, for the Doge. From this moment these Crusaders constituted, in the hands of Venice, a blind and brutal force, which it launched against the Greek empire. They were ignorant alike of the motives and secret intelligence of the Venetians, and of the state of the empire they were about to attack. Apparently at the urgent request of Alexius, son of the Eastern emperor, Isaac Angelus, who had been dethroned by his brother, the Crusaders went from Zara to Constantinople with the Venetian fleet of 480 sail, captured the city, and replaced Alexius and his father on the throne (1203). It had never been the intention of the Venetians that the Crusade should end thus.

The new emperor could only satisfy the requisitions of his liberators by ruining his subjects. The Greeks murmured, the Crusaders pressed and threatened. In the meantime, they insulted the people in a thousand ways, as well as the emperor of their own making. Finally they set fire to some houses, and the flames spreading, the conflagration raged over the thickest and most populous quarter of the city, and lasted eight days. This event put the finishing stroke to the exasperation of the people, who rose up against the emperor whose restoration had brought so many evils in its train. Isaac died in the midst of the revolt, and his son Alexius was murdered by the Greeks. The city was taken a second time by the Crusaders, its palaces were plundered, and its monuments destroyed. The barbarians scattered the bones of the emperors, and when they came to Justinian's tomb, found with surprise that the body of the legislator betrayed no signs of decay or putrefaction.

Who was to have the honor of seating himself on Justinian's throne, and of founding the new empire? The worthiest was the aged Dandolo. But the Venetians were opposed to this. What these merchants desired was, posts, commercial depots, a long chain of factories, which might secure them the whole of the great eastern highway. They chose for their own share the maritime coast and the islands, together with three out of the eight quarters of Constantinople, with the fantastic title of "*Lords of one-fourth and a half of the Roman Empire.*"

The empire, reduced to one-fourth of its limits, was bestowed on Baldwin, Count of Flanders, a descendant of Charlemagne. Boniface, of Montferrat, became king of Thessalonica. The greatest part of the empire was portioned out into fiefs.

The Asiatic part of the Eastern Empire was not conquered, however, but formed two distinct Greek realms. Theodore Lascaris became emperor at Nicæa, Alexis Comnenus emperor at Trebisonde.

The results of this memorable event were not as great as might have been imagined. The Latin empire of Constantinople lasted even a shorter time than the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, for Michael Palæologus, of the Nicæan empire, put an end to it in 1261. Venice alone derived material advantage from it, which she did largely.

Crusade against the Albigenses.

In the border countries, where Christendom, Islam, and Persian fire-worship met, horrible heresies had sprung up. A certain Manes, a Persian who lived in the third century after Christ, after which the heretics were called Manichæans, had taught the belief in two distinct powers, one of good and one of evil, both eternal, and of equal authority.

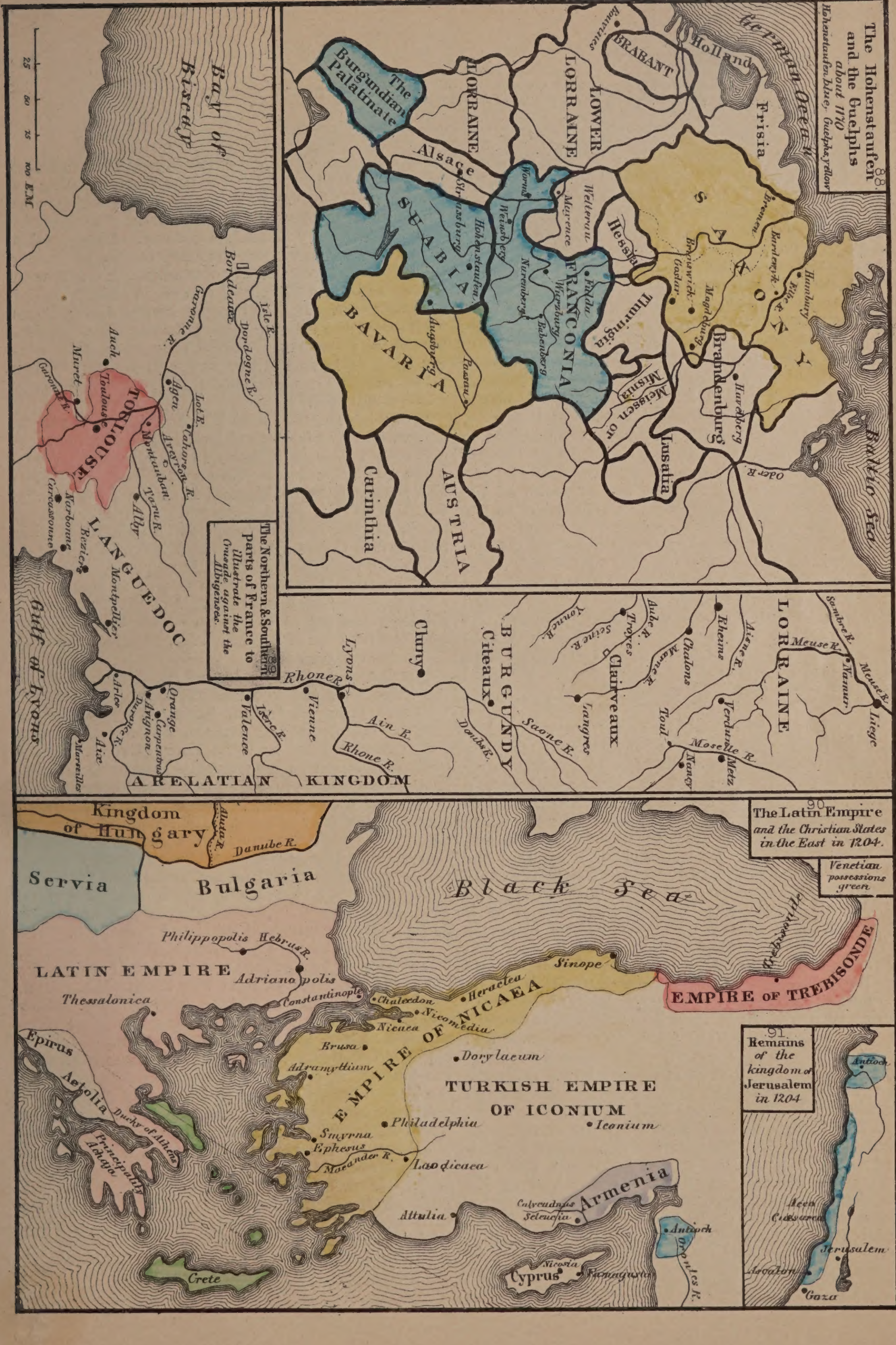
The Manichæans, driven from Asia, had settled in Bulgaria, where nominally they became Christians, but boldly denied trans-substantiation, rejected confession, and also the sacrament of marriage. Following the course of the Danube, they had spread over Western Europe, but their stronghold was Languedoc.

They were known as Albigenses, from one of their chief places, *Alby*, in Languedoc. Pope Innocent III. at first employed against them only spiritual weapons. Before proscribing, he tried to convert them. Among the most zealous of the missionaries were Pierre de Castelnau and Raoul, both Cistercian monks, and Diego Azèbes, Bishop of Osma, and his sub-prior, Dominic, both Spaniards. They began that course of austerity and of preaching among the people which was ultimately to make of Dominic a saint and the founder of a great religious order.

In 1205, Pierre de Castelnau repaired to Toulouse to demand of Raymond VI. a formal promise to suppress heresy.

One of Raymond's knights overtook the monk on the Rhone and stabbed him. This murder was the signal for war against Raymond VI., a war undertaken on the plea of a personal crime, but in reality for the extirpation of heresy in Southern France.

Rome cried for help to the warriors of Northern France (1208). A war, distinguished even among wars of religion by merciless atrocity, destroyed the Albigensian heresy, and with that heresy the prosperity, the civilization, the literature, the national existence of Languedoc (1208–1244).



88 The Hohenstaufen and the Guelphs about 1170

Hohenstaufen blue; Guelphs yellow

89 The Northern & Southern parts of France to illustrate the Crusade against the Albigenses.

90 The Latin Empire and the Christian States in the East in 1204.

Venetian possessions green

91 Remains of the kingdom of Jerusalem in 1204

HOHENSTAUFEN AND GUELPHS.

At the death of Emperor Henry V., without direct heir, in 1125, Frederick of Hohenstaufen, his eldest nephew, inherited, in virtue of this relationship, the patrimonial estates of the Salic House, which, added to his large possessions in his own Duchy of Suabia, made him one of the most powerful princes of his time. He expected to succeed his uncle on the imperial throne. But the great unpopularity of the last Salic emperors, and a disposition to make the empire elective, were skilfully used by Henry the Proud, head of the house of Guelph, and Duke of Bavaria, to bring about the election of Lothar the Saxon.

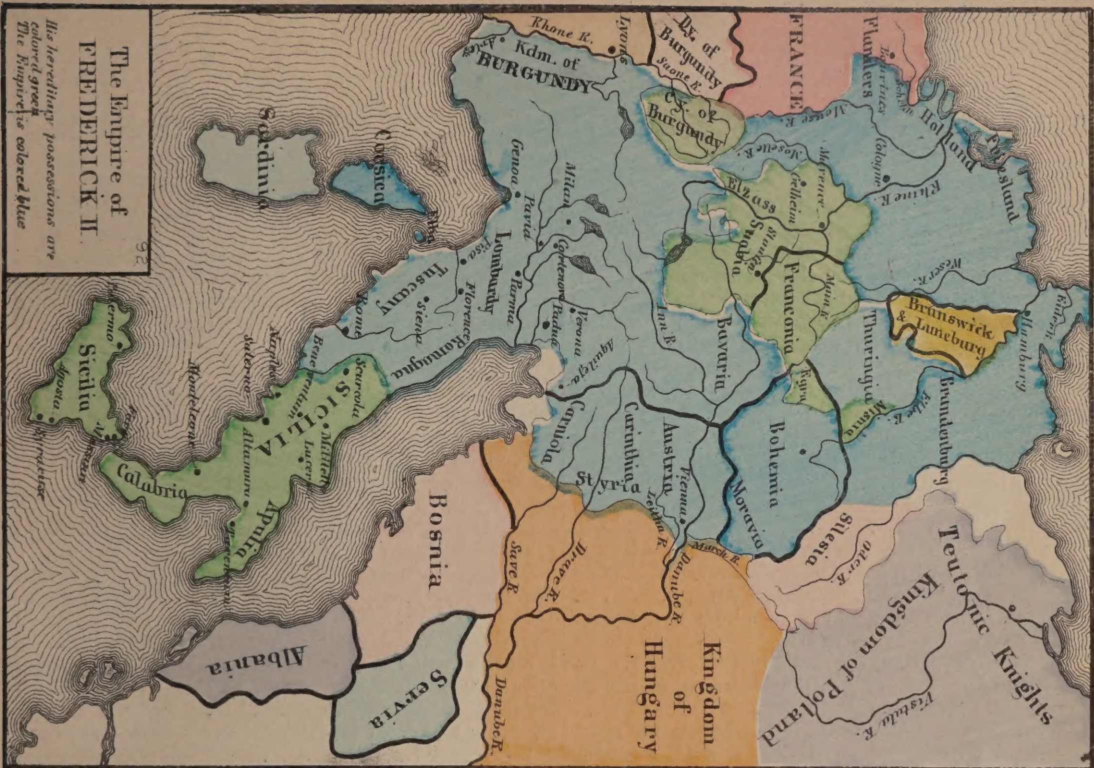
Henry was rewarded for his zeal, not only by the hand of Gertrude, Lothar's daughter and heiress, but also by the Saxon duchy. Thus were united in the Guelph family the two large duchies of Bavaria and Saxony. Lothar seemed to have only two objects: to oppress and humble the nephews of the late emperor, and to secure the succession to the empire for his son-in-law, Henry the Proud. But the amazing preponderance of the house of Guelph alienated the princes from it, and on Lothar's death (1137) they conferred the imperial crown on Conrad of Hohenstaufen. One of the first acts of Conrad III. was to order Henry the Proud to resign one of his duchies, since two could not legally be held by the same person. On his refusal to comply with this demand he was deprived of both. He died within a year (1139), leaving an infant son, Henry the Lion.

Conrad III., whose eldest son, Henry, who had already been elected *King of the Romans* (*i.e.*, declared heir-presumptive), died before his father, secured the succession, not for his second son, a minor, but for his nephew, Frederick, Duke of Suabia (Barbarossa). The princes elected him unanimously (1152) because he was, through his mother, Judith, sister of Henry the Proud, related to the Guelphs, and hope was entertained that his election would make an end to the strife between the two rival houses. In the beginning it seemed as if this would be the case. For the cousins, of nearly equal age, were fast friends. Both Saxony and Bavaria were restored to Henry the Lion, who on his part accompanied Barbarossa, whose great ambition was to be master of this fair land, on his expedition to Italy. Five times he crossed the Alps with magnificent armies, to be wasted by pestilence and the sword. In 1174 he entered Lombardy for the fifth time. Henry the Lion deserted him at a critical moment, and, thanks to this desertion, Barbarossa was beaten on the decisive field of Legnano (1176). He had to make peace, submit to the demands of the Pope, and grant the Italian cities their municipal rights. But Henry the Lion was made to suffer for his treason. He was deprived of his possessions and estates (1180). Once more Barbarossa went to Italy (1184–1186), not to fight, but to celebrate the marriage of his heir-apparent, Henry, with Constance, *daughter of Roger II.*, aunt and heiress of William II., the last Norman king of Naples and Sicily. The son of this marriage was Emperor Frederick II., "*the wonder of the world.*" Under him Sicily flourished greatly. More Italian than German, he visited Germany only once during thirty years, loving most to surround himself with poets, artists, and philosophers in his brilliant Sicilian court. But he became involved in quarrels with one Pope after another; he was twice excommunicated; again the Italian cities raised the war-cry of Guelph and Ghibelline, and he died in the midst of the long struggle (1250). He was really the last emperor.

Frederick II., who sent his trophies to Rome, to be guarded by his own subjects in his own city, was a Roman Cæsar in a sense in which no other emperor was after him. His son, Conrad IV. (1250–1254) only showed himself in Italy to meet his death. Thus the empire escaped out of the hands of the Hohenstaufen, and the King of England's brother (Richard of Cornwall), and the King of Castile (Alfonso X.), each thought himself emperor. Conrad's son, the little Corradino, was not of an age to dispute anything with anybody. But the kingdom of Naples remained in the grasp of the bastard Manfred, the true son of Frederick II., brilliant and witty as his father.

Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, to whom the Pope gave the two Sicilies, defeated Manfred, who was betrayed by his barons, at Beneventum (1266). Manfred fell on the field. Charles of Anjou would have had the poor excommunicated corpse remain unburied; but the French themselves brought a stone each, and so reared the hero a tomb.

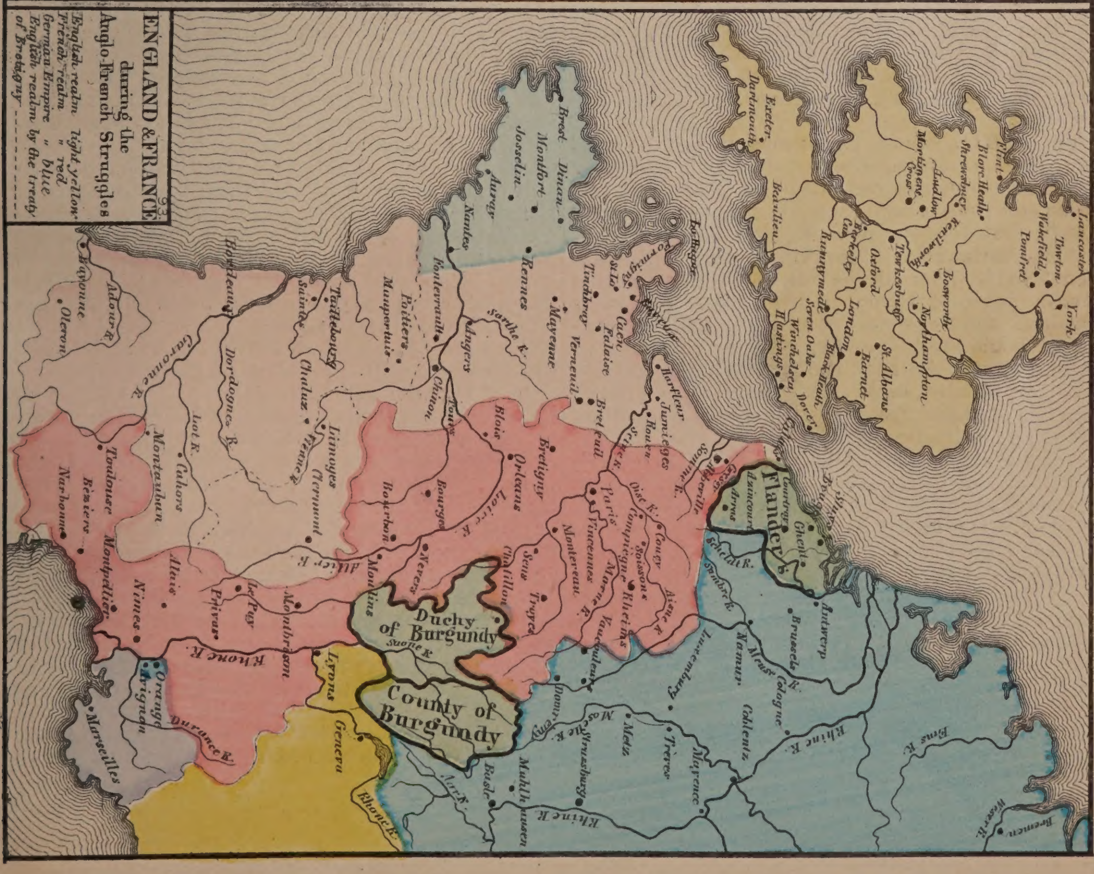
The fierce conqueror of Naples was nowise softened by his easy victory. He scattered over the country a swarm of ravenous agents, who devoured everything. Matters were carried to such an extreme that even the Pope remonstrated. All Italy resounded with complaints, which echoed beyond the Alps. The whole Ghibelline party of Naples and of Tuscany implored the aid of Corradino. The heroic youth had long been detained by his mother, but as soon as he had attained the age of fifteen she found it impossible to hold him back. His friend, Frederick of Austria, joined his fortunes. They crossed the Alps with hardly four thousand men-at-arms. They were, however, reinforced by the Ghibellines of Italy. The men were animated with the best spirit, and when they encountered, behind the Tagliacozzo, the army of Charles of Anjou, they boldly crossed the river, and put to flight all who faced them. They thought the victory theirs, when Charles, with his reserve, suddenly fell upon them. They were annihilated, and Corradino was taken prisoner. He was brought to Naples, where the last male of the Hohenstaufen was beheaded, together with his inseparable friend, Frederick of Austria (October 29, 1269).



92

The Empire of FREDERICK II.

His hereditary possessions are colored green. The Empire is colored blue.



93

ENGLAND & FRANCE during the Anglo-French Struggles

English realm tight yellow.
French realm " red.
German Empire " blue.
English realm by the treaty of Bretigny ---------

THE BURGUNDIAN DUKES OF THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

In 1362, the young Duke of Burgundy, Philip de Rouvre, the last of the first Burgundian line, descendants of King Robert of France, died without issue. King John, who was the nearest of blood, immediately took possession of the duchy; went to Dijon and swore (December 23, 1362,) on the altar of St. Benignus that he would maintain its privileges. Nine months afterward (September 6, 1363,) he disposed of the Duchy of Burgundy in the following terms: "Recalling again to memory the excellent and praiseworthy services of our right dearly beloved Philip, the fourth of our sons, who freely exposed himself to death with us, and, all wounded as he was, remained unwavering and fearless at the battle of Poitiers . . . . . we do concede to him and give him the duchy and peerage of Burgundy, together with all that we may have therein of right, possession, and proprietorship . . . . . for the which gift our said son has done us homage as duke and premier peer of France."

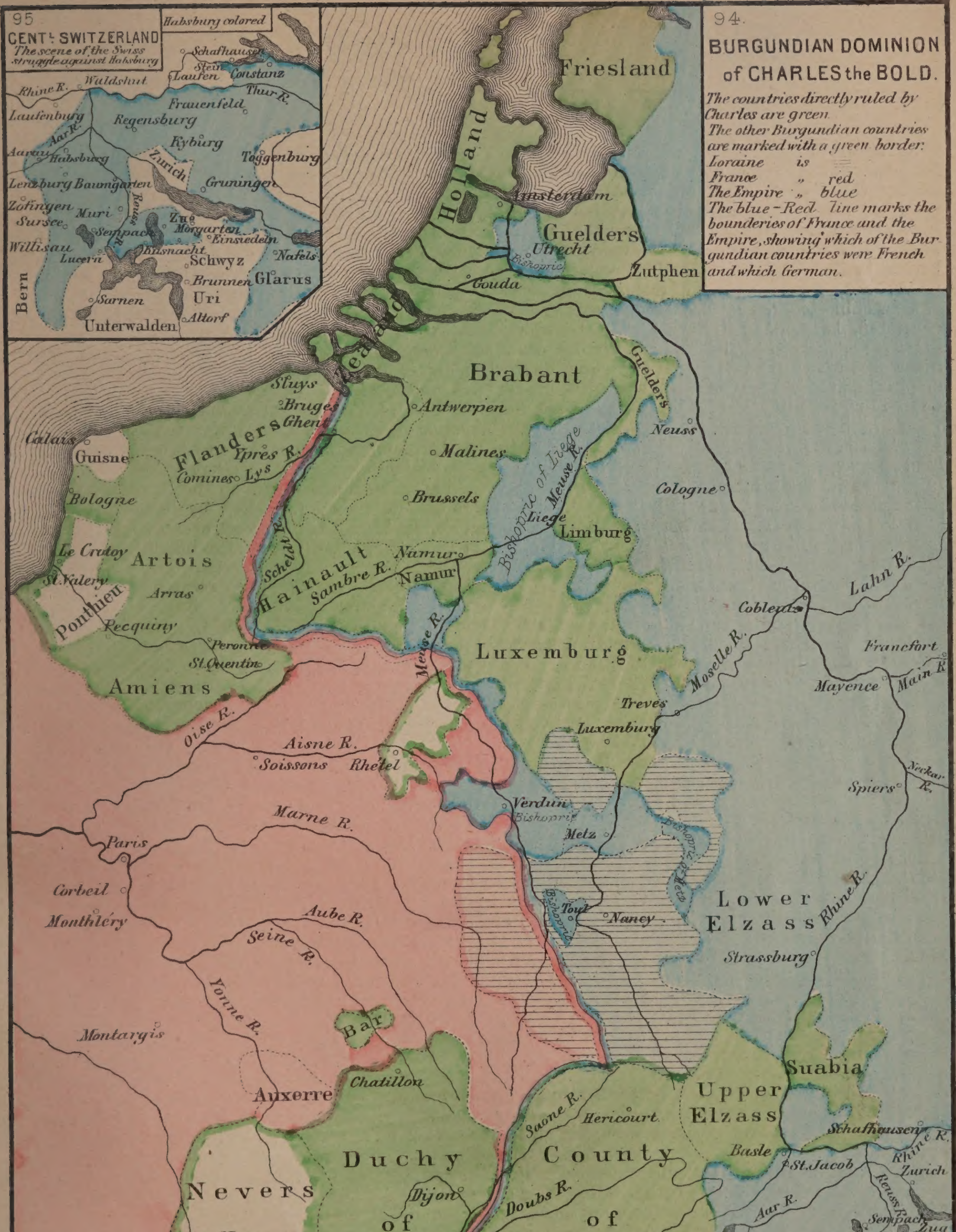
This Philip the Bold obtained in 1369, by his marriage with Margaret of Flanders, widow of Philip de Rouvre, the county of Burgundy, as a fief of the empire, and, on the death of his father-in-law in 1383, the counties of Flanders, Artois, Rhetel, Auxerre, and Nevers, all fiefs of the crown of France. His grandson was Philip the Good (1419–1467), one of the mightiest princes of his time. His possessions stretched from the Zuyder Zee to near Paris, and from the Narrow Seas to the Jura. Flanders was one of the most prosperous countries of Europe. Of this property the woollen manufacture was the chief foundation, in commemoration of which had been instituted (1430) the order of the Golden Fleece. Ghent and Bruges were among the richest and most populous cities of Europe. But, on the other hand, the dominions of Philip the Good were farther removed than those of any prince in Europe from forming a compact whole. His various territories had as little geographical as they had political connection. They lay in two large masses, the two Burgundies forming one, and the Low Countries forming the other, so that their common master could not go from one of his capitals to another without passing through a foreign territory.

It was Philip's son, Charles the Bold (1467–1477), who determined to weld this heterogeneous mass into one consolidated realm—into a great Burgundian kingdom. He aimed at the formation of a state which should hold a central position between France, Germany, and Italy.

His father died in 1467, but his practical reign may be dated at least two years earlier, when the old age and sickness of Philip threw the chief management of affairs into his hands. What we may call his French career lasts from this point till 1472. During this period, his main policy is to maintain and increase that predominance in French politics which had been gained by his father. As a French prince, he joined with other French princes to put limits on the power of the crown, and to divide the kingdom into great feudal holdings, as nearly independent as might be of the common sovereign. The object of Louis XI. was to make France a compact monarchy; the object of Charles and the other French princes was to keep France, as nearly as might be, in the same state as Germany. But when the other French princes had been gradually conquered Charles remained no longer the chief of a coalition of French princes, but the personal rival, the deadly enemy, of the French king. Since 1472, his object was, not to gain a paramount influence within the kingdom of France, but to dismember, perhaps to conquer it, in the character of a foreign sovereign. For this end, more than for any other, he strove to gather together province after province.

The Austrian possessions in the Upper Elzass and Suabia had been mortgaged by their duke, Sigismund, to him. The tyranny exercised by Charles' governor, Hagenbach, made the inhabitants try their utmost to pay off the mortgage. But Charles, who wanted to keep the territory, refused to take it, and ordered Hagenbach to resist. But he was seized, tried, and executed (May, 1474). Charles avenged his governor by ravaging Elzass, which called upon the Swiss for aid and protection. They allied themselves with their old enemies, the Austrians, and defeated the Burgundians at Héricourt (November 13, 1474). The duke invaded Switzerland, took Granson, and drowned all the garrison, who had surrendered to him on parole. The Swiss army, however, was advancing; Charles had the imprudence to go to meet it. Taking his stand on the hill which still bears his name, he saw them rush down from the mountains crying, *Granson! Granson!* The Burgundians tried again and again without success to break through the forest of pikes which advanced at a run. The rout was soon complete; the duke's camp, his guns, and his treasures, fell into the conquerors' hands (March, 1476). Three months afterward, he again attacked the Swiss, at Morat, and experienced a still more bloody defeat.

René II., who had been deprived by Charles of his inheritance, took advantage of his distress to attempt the recovery of his Duchy of Lorraine. He drove the Burgundians from the open country into the town of Nancy, which he took (October, 1476). Charles resolved immediately to attempt the recovery of Nancy. He assaulted the town in the very presence of René's army. The assault was repulsed, and René then offered him battle (January 5, 1477). The Burgundians had to retreat, during which Charles was slain unrecognized. Thus perished miserably, in the midst of his ambitious dreams, Charles of Burgundy, a prince who displayed no single sign of deep or enlarged policy, but whose whole career was one simple embodiment of military force—not a man to found an empire, but the very man to lose the dominions which he had himself inherited and conquered.



95

CENTL. SWITZERLAND

The scene of the Swiss struggle against Habsburg

Habsburg colored

94.

BURGUNDIAN DOMINION of CHARLES the BOLD.

The countries directly ruled by Charles are green.
The other Burgundian countries are marked with a green border:
Loraine is ▤
France „ red
The Empire „ blue
The blue-Red line marks the bounderies of France and the Empire, showing which of the Burgundian countries were French and which German.

THE HABSBURGS AND THE LUXEMBURGS.

(Continuation of XXXIII.)

After the fall of the Hohenstaufen, the empire had for nearly twenty years, no recognized head. Often, during these dark days, did the common people think of Barbarossa, and sigh for the time when he should awake from his long sleep and bring back quiet and safety. At last even the selfish barons became convinced that Germany could not do without a government. The leading princes (the three archbishops of Mayence, Cologne, and Treves) conferred, in 1273, the crown on Rudolf of Habsburg. Ottocar, King of Bohemia, refused to do homage to him. He was put under the ban of the empire, and his fiefs proclaimed forfeited. Conquered in battle (Marchfield, 1278), he was forced to yield to the conqueror *Austria*, *Styria*, *Carinthia*, and *Carniola*. Rudolf bestowed them, in 1282, in fief on his two sons, Albert and Rudolf, and on his brother-in-law, Meinhard of Tyrol (Carinthia). Thus was founded the future greatness of the house of Habsburg. Albert alone survived his father, and in conjunction with his nephew John inherited all the Habsburg possessions. Rudolf had in vain endeavored to procure the German crown for his son, who was, however, elected on the deposition of Adolf of Nassau, in 1298, and assumed the title of Albert I. He was assassinated in 1308 by his nephew John. Through the influence of the Archbishop of Treves, the princes elected as *King of the Romans* his brother Henry, Count of Luxemburg. This is Emperor Henry VII., celebrated by the contemporary Italian poet, Dante. Although a prince of small possessions, he strove to live up to his title. The marriage of his son John with Ottocar's granddaughter Elizabeth, heiress of Bohemia, founded the greatness of the house of Luxemburg.

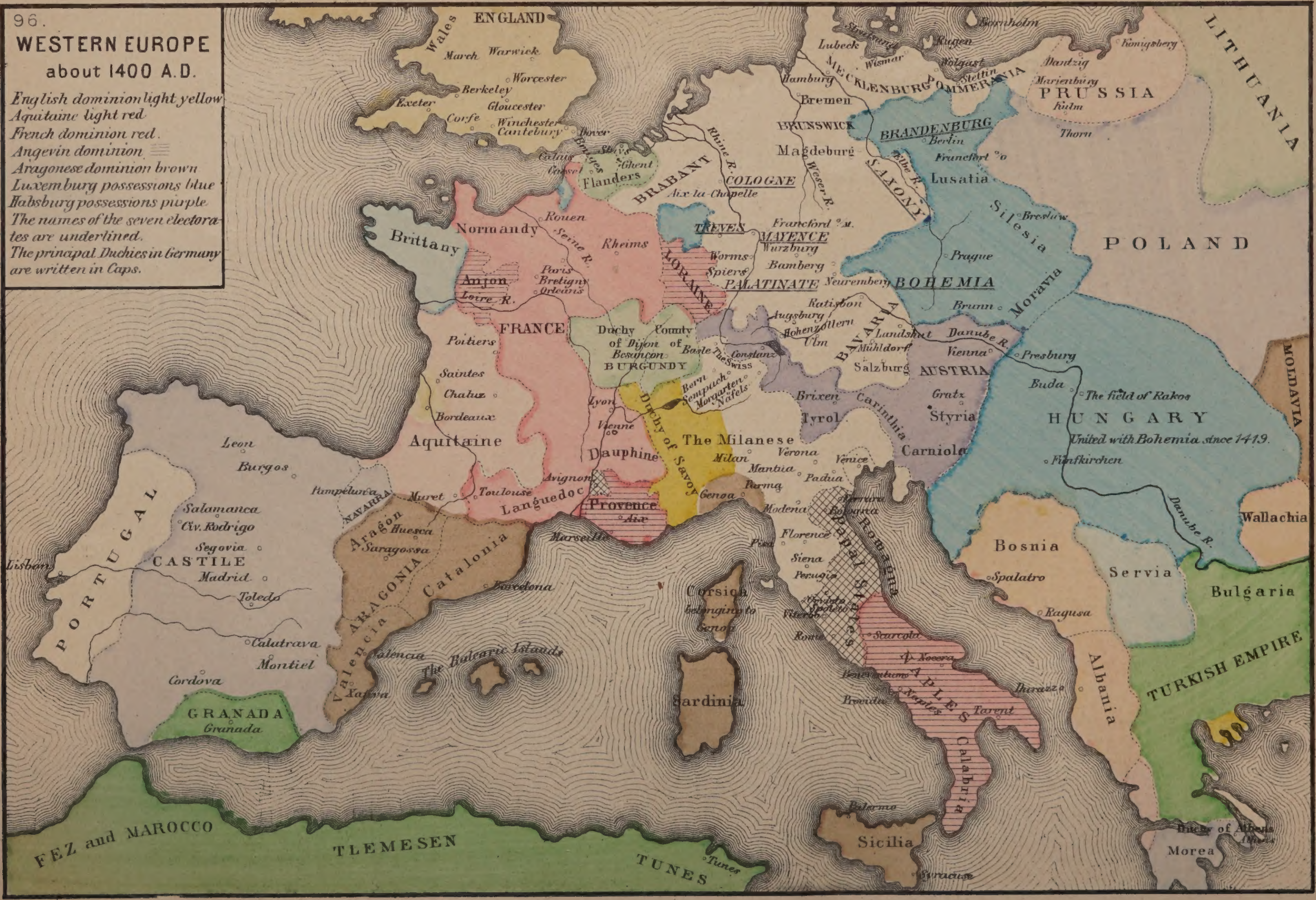
The empire, however, on Henry VII.'s death, in 1313, was bestowed on Louis the Bavarian (1314–1347). Albert I.'s son, Frederick, was elected as a rival to Louis the Bavarian, but was overthrown at the battle of *Ampfing*, near Mühldorf, in 1322; and from this period till the election of Albert II., in 1438, the Habsburg princes remained excluded from the German throne, and were chiefly occupied with the affairs of the Austrian dominions. Louis the Bavarian was not able to leave the empire to his son. The violent means adopted by him to increase his domestic power led (1346), a year before his death, to the election of Charles, son of that John of Bohemia who fell, in 1346, at Crécy. This second emperor of the house of Luxemburg, Charles IV. (1347–1378), had nothing knightly in his character, but was wise in statecraft and shrewd in calculation. Under his direction was drawn up (1356) the famous *Golden Bull*, so called from the golden seal (with the legend *Roma caput mundi regit orbis frena rotundi*) affixed to it. This famous instrument, which became the corner-stone of the German constitution, confessed and legalized the independence of the electors and the powerlessness of the crown. Frankfort was fixed as the place of election. The Archbishop of Mayence, Arch-chancellor of Germany, was convener of the electoral college; the six other electors were: the Archbishop of Cologne, Arch-chancellor of Italy; the Archbishop of Treves, Arch-chancellor of the kingdom of Arles; the King of Bohemia, Arch-seneschal; the Count Palatine, Arch-steward; the Duke of Saxony, Arch-marshal; the Margrave of Brandenburg, Arch-chamberlain. The electoral vote went with the land. In 1373 Emperor Charles IV. bought, for about $150,000 (only half of it ever paid), from Otto, third son of Louis the Bavarian, the electorate and mark of Brandenburg.

To Germany he was indirectly a benefactor, by the foundation (1348) of a university, after the pattern of that in Paris, at Prague. It was the first university in Germany—the mother of all her schools.

On his death-bed he divided his lands among his three sons. Wenceslaus, the eldest, who had already been elected to the German throne, received the cradle of the race, *Luxemburg*, with *Bohemia* and *Silesia;* Sigismund, *Brandenburg;* John, *Lusatia*. Wenzel was deposed as emperor in 1400. He died childless (1419), as King of Bohemia. Rupert, the Count Palatine, wore the imperial crown from 1400 to 1410, when Sigismund was elected emperor, who, in right of his wife, Maria, daughter of Louis the Great, was King of Hungary. Since his brother Wenceslaus's death, in 1419, he had united under his sceptre Bohemia and Hungary. He had, however, before this, parted with his original domain. For at Constance, in 1415, Sigismund had invested Frederick of Hohenzollern, burggrave of Nuremburg, with the mark of Brandenburg, the electoral vote, and the office of Arch-chamberlain, as a reward for the important services he had done him and the empire. In reality he had mortgaged the mark for a million of dollars, which he found very inconvenient to pay back. His father had actually paid for it $75,000. Sigismund sold it forty-two years later for $1,000,000. The new elector vigorously entered his possession, battering down with gunpowder "the castle walls fourteen feet thick" of the robber knights, and restored order and quiet. His descendants to-day occupy the Prussian throne.

Sigismund, the last of the house of Luxemburg, died December 9, 1437. He left only a daughter, wedded to the then Albert, Duke of Austria; which Albert, on the strength of this, came to the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, as his wife's inheritance, and to that of the empire by election. Died thereupon in a few months; "three crowns, Bohemia, Hungary, and the empire in that one year, 1438, and then next year he quitted them all, for a fourth and more lasting crown, as is hoped."

At the death of Albert II. the Germans elected to the imperial throne Frederick III., eldest son of Ernest the Iron, who gradually inherited all the Habsburg possessions. From this time the imperial crown was transmitted in the house of Habsburg as if it had been an hereditary possession.



96.

WESTERN EUROPE
about 1400 A.D.

English dominion light yellow
Aquitaine light red
French dominion red.
Angevin dominion ▤
Aragonese dominion brown
Luxemburg possessions blue
Habsburg possessions purple
The names of the seven electorates are underlined.
The principal Duchies in Germany are written in Caps.

THE TURKS.

The original home of the Turks was on the slope of the Altai Mountains, from whence they descended into the steppes to the east of Lake Aral. After them this tract was called Turkestan, or Turan. About 1000 A. D., Seljuk led several tribes out of Turkestan into Bokhara. They were called, after him, Seljukian Turks, or Seljuks. They embraced the Islam, and played an important part in the continual feuds between the Mohammedan empires in Asia. After Seljuk's death, his third son, Arslan, crossed the Oxus and settled in Chorassan, from whence he extended his power in all directions (1039). Togrul Beg, grandson of Seljuk, became the founder of a large empire, which, under his grandson, Malek-shah, extended from the Chinese frontier to the Ægæan Sea. It lasted till 1092, when it was split into five smaller states, of which the Sultanate of Iconium, in Asia Minor, was the most important.

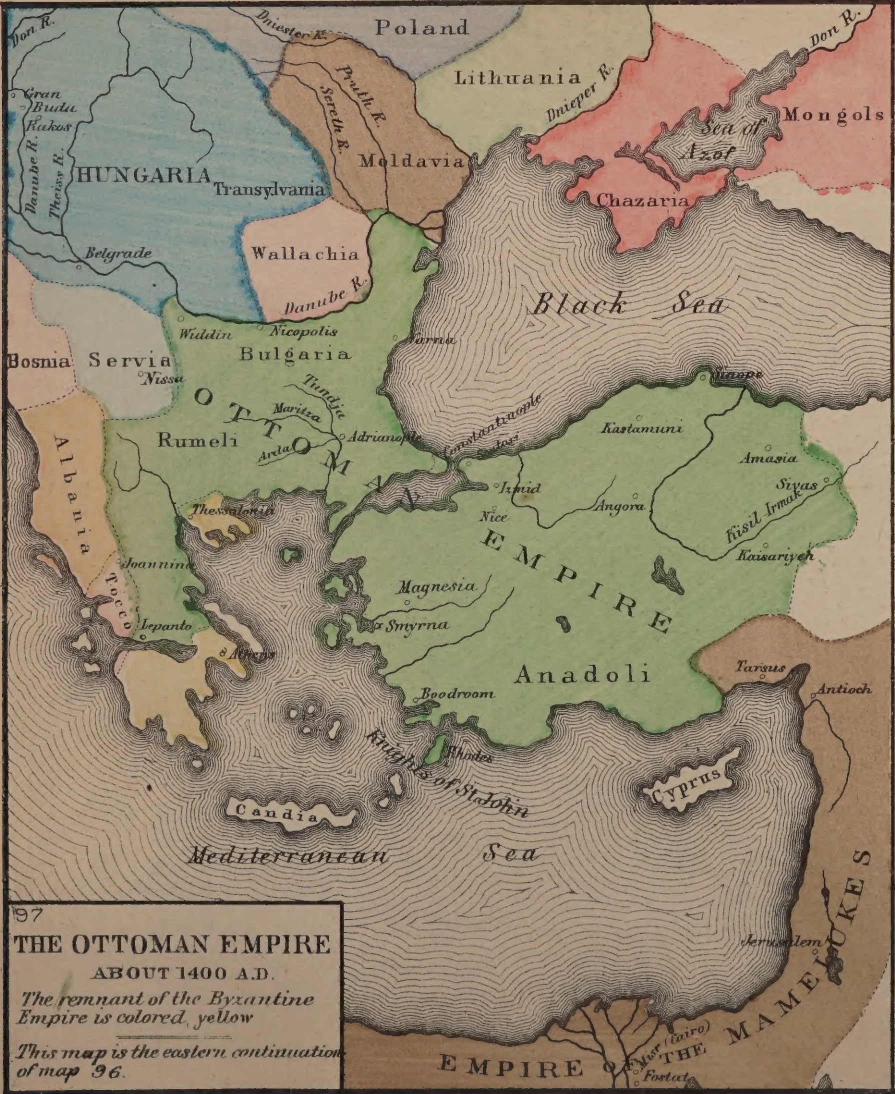
As ruling over a land conquered from the Roman empire, they called themselves the Sultans of Roum (*Rome*). Their attacks on the Eastern empire caused the Christian nations of the West to come to the help of their brethren in the East. (See Crusades). The power of Roum, weakened in the eleventh century by the Crusaders, was broken in the thirteenth century by the Mongols. In one of the many battles between Turks and Mongols, the latter were conquered by the help of a wandering Turkish tribe, who, under their leader, Ertoghrul, were seeking new settlements. They were rewarded with a grant of the rich plains of Saguta, along the left bank of the river Sakaria. (See Map 131, Plate xlix.) This district grew step by step into the Osmanli empire, thus called after Osman, the son of Ertoghrul, who, in 1299, threw off his allegiance to the Sultan of Iconium. To the territories which Osman had won by arms, a permanent organization was given under his son and successor, Orchan (1326–1360).

After the regulation of their army, they appeared everywhere as conquerors. They crossed to Thrace and took Adrianople in 1361. It was nearly a century later that Constantinople was invested by Mohammed II. (1453). Severed already from Europe by schism, and by the Turkish conquests, this unhappy city saw beneath her walls an army of 300,000 barbarians. In May the city was taken. The last emperor, Constantine Palæologus, died fighting for his empire. Europe was deeply moved; Pope Nicholas V. preached the Crusade; all the Italian states became reconciled at Lodi (1454). In other countries the cross was taken up by thousands. At Lille, the Duke of Burgundy presented, at a banquet, a figure of the Church in tears, and swore that he would go and fight the infidels. But the enthusiasm lasted only a short time. Nine days after signing the Treaty of Lodi, the Venetians contracted another with the Turks. Charles VII. would not allow the Crusade to be preached in France; the Duke of Burgundy stayed at home, and the new attempt of John of Calabria on the kingdom of Naples occupied the whole attention of Italy.

The only real champions of Christendom were the Hungarian Hunniades and the Albanian Scanderbeg. The latter had been seen, like Alexander, whose name the Turks bestowed on him, leaping alone upon the walls of a besieged city. Ten years after his death, the Turks divided his bones among themselves, believing that they would thus become invincible. The other *soldier of Christ*, Hunniades, checked their advance, while Scanderbeg made his diversion in the rear. When the Osmanli attacked Belgrade, the bulwark of Hungary, Hunniades broke through the infidel army to throw himself into the town, repulsed during forty days its most vigorous assaults, and was celebrated as the Saviour of Christendom.

His son, Matthias Corvinus, whom the gratitude of the Hungarians raised to the throne, opposed his Black Guard, the first regular infantry this nation ever had, to the Janissaries of Mohammed II. Pope Pius II. and Venice allied themselves with this great prince, when their conquest of Servia and Bosnia opened for the Turks the road to Italy. The Pope was the soul of the Crusade; he appointed Ancona as the place of muster for all who would go with him to fight the enemies of the faith. But his strength was not sufficient. The aged Pope expired on the shore in sight of the Venetian galleys which were to have carried him to Greece (1464).

His successor, Paul II., abandoned the generous policy of Pius. He armed against the heretical Bohemians that Matthias Corvinus whose prowess ought to have been exerted only against the Turks. While the Christians weakened themselves in this way by divisions, Mohammed II. swore solemnly in the mosque which had formerly been St. Sophia the utter ruin of Christianity. Venice, abandoned by her allies, lost the island of Negropont, which was conquered by the Turks within sight of her fleet. The Turkish cavalry spread at last over the Friuli as far as the river Piave, burning the crops, villages, and palaces of the Venetian nobles; the flames of this conflagration were even visible in the night from Venice itself. The republic abandoned the unequal struggle, sacrificed Scutari, and submitted to a tribute (1479). It did even more. During the siege of Rhodes, which had been undertaken by the Turkish forces, it was reported that one hundred Turkish vessels, observed, or rather escorted, by the Venetian fleet, had crossed to the coast of Italy—that Otranto had been taken, and its governor sawed in two. Terror was at its height, and would perhaps have been justified by the result of the invasion, if the death of Mohammed II. had not put a stop for a time to the course of Turkish conquest.



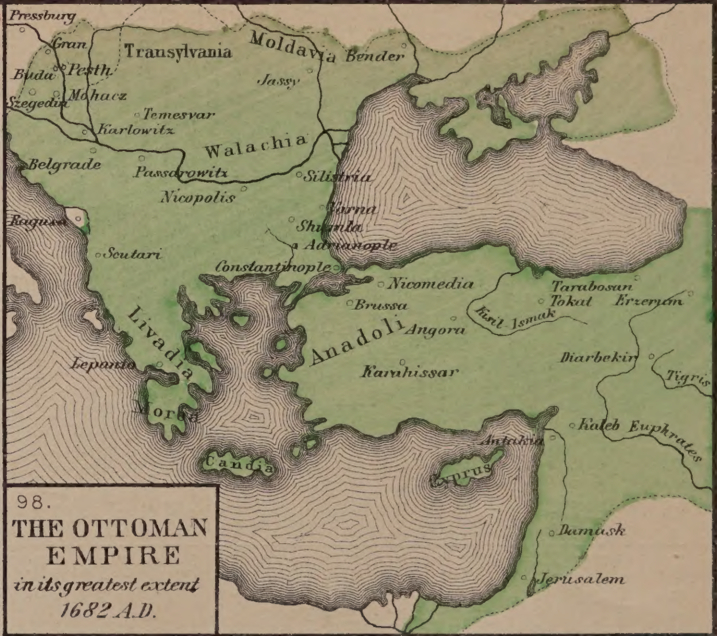
97

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

ABOUT 1400 A.D.

The remnant of the Byzantine Empire is colored, yellow

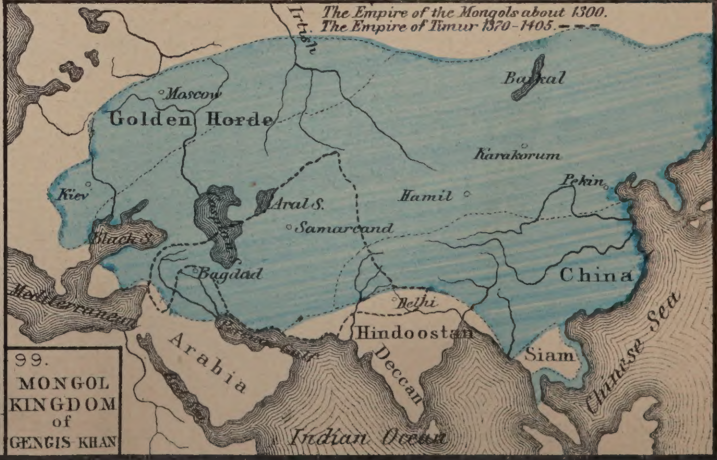
This map is the eastern continuation of map 96.



98.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

in its greatest extent 1682 A.D.



The Empire of the Mongols about 1300.
The Empire of Timur 1370–1405.

99.

MONGOL KINGDOM of GENGIS KHAN

THE DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE AND SPANIARDS.

Portugal led the way among European states to conquest and colonization out of Europe. Fifty years of conquest (1415–1471) gave to Portugal her kingdom of "Algarve beyond the Sea," which led to the discovery of the whole coast of the African continent, and to the growth of a vast Portuguese dominion in various parts of the world. The Canary Islands had been discovered in 1344. But Cape Nun (Not), which lies on the African coast opposite the Canaries, was long considered an impassable boundary, until the Portuguese succeeded in doubling it (1412) and reaching Cape Bojador. Little by little, adventurous captains coasted farther and farther, until the Cape Verde Islands were found; then the Gold Coast, the island of Fernando Po, the river Congo, and at last, in 1487, Bartolomeo Diaz doubled the Cape of Storms, the southern boundary of Africa; and as the coast beyond was ascertained to trend to the northeast, the prospect of success seemed now so clear that King John II. re-named this headland the "Cape of Good Hope." It took 70 years of exploration to trace the African coast line of 6,000 miles from Cape Nun to the Cape of Good Hope. Most of the discoveries were due to the untiring energy of Henry the Navigator (1394–1460), fourth son of King John I. He passed the greater part of his life at Segres, near Cape St. Vincent, whence, with his eyes fixed on the southern seas, he directed the adventurous pilots, who were the first to visit those unknown shores.

Eleven years after Diaz (1498), Vasco de Gama arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, and returned to Portugal in the following year, bringing home a rich cargo of the various products of the country. A new expedition soon followed on the heels of the first, under the orders of Alvarez Cabral. After passing Cape Verde, steering westward, he arrived off the coast of Brazil. Having taken possession of that country for the crown of Portugal, he continued his journey to India. The ability of Cabral, and of Almeida, the first Portuguese viceroy in India, laid the foundations of a brilliant colonial empire in India, the principal founder of which, however, was the brave Albuquerque. He took, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, Ormuz, the most brilliant and polished town in Asia (1507). He made Goa the headquarters of the Portuguese establishment in India (1510). Finally, his occupation of Malacca and Ceylon gave the Portuguese the dominion over the vast ocean of which the northern boundary is the Gulf of Bengal. But the conqueror died in poverty and disgrace at Goa, and with him disappeared all justice and humanity among the Portuguese.

While the Portuguese were making this progress in eastern navigation, the Spaniards had made still more brilliant and striking discoveries in a new hemisphere.

Columbus, (Christobal Colon, 1436–1506), conceived that something still greater might be effected. His original idea and principal purpose were to reverse the Portuguese method, and to seek a passage to India by sailing westward.

Shortly after the conquest of Granada, by the Spanish sovereigns in 1492, Columbus, after many tedious years of suspense, at length succeeded in gaining for his scheme the sanction and assistance of Queen Isabella. The Spanish court, however, was poor; but Martin Pinzon, a wealthy ship-owner and experienced navigator of Palos, not only furnished one of the vessels required for the expedition, but also engaged personally, with his two brothers, to accompany it. Columbus received at length a patent from the court, and sailed on August 3, 1492, from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, with three small vessels and the empty title of admiral. From the Canaries, where he anchored, he took only thirty-three days to discover the first American island (Friday, October 12, 1492). This proved to be one of the Bahama Islands, called by the natives Guanahani. He took possession of the land in the name of Isabella, Queen of Castile and Leon, giving to the island the name San Salvador.

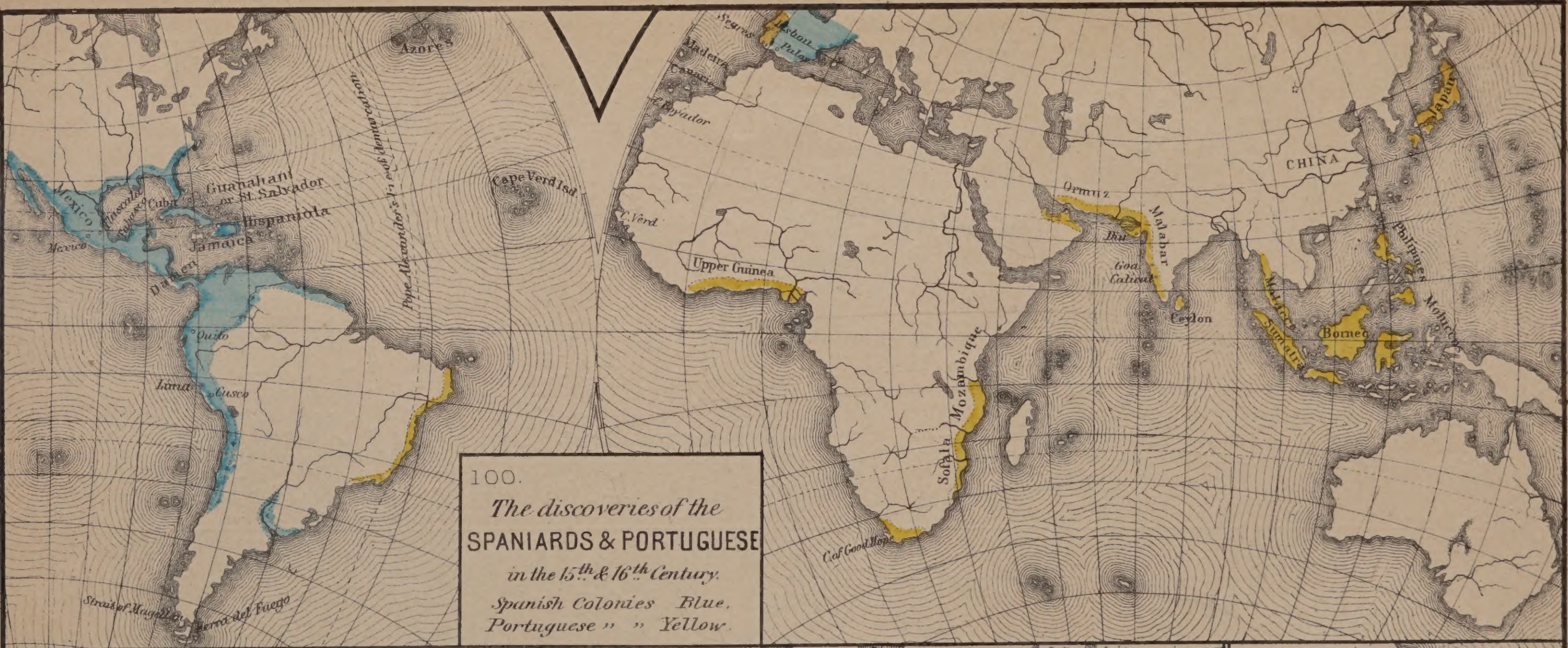
In his further searches he discovered the large and important islands of Cuba (which he called Juanna), and Hayti (Española, St. Domingo). The loss, however, of his largest ship, and other events, compelled Columbus to return to Europe.

Ferdinand and Isabella were greatly surprised at seeing him return, after seven months (March 15), with Americans from Hayti, as well as some of the curiosities of the country, especially gold, with which he presented them.

They were readily induced by the success of the first voyage to fit out a second expedition. A fleet of seventeen ships was prepared, reckoned to carry 1,500 persons, with all the means and appliances necessary for colonizing. On this second voyage he discovered the Lesser Antilles (inhabited by *Caribs*), which Columbus misunderstood *Canibs* (whence Cannibals), and the island of Jamaica.

On his third voyage (May, 1498–November, 1500), he first sighted the continent (August 1, 1498), ten degrees beyond the equator, and the coast on which was founded Carthagena. The success of Columbus stimulated other navigators to emulate his voyages. One of the most eminent of those who followed in his track was Amerigo Vespucci, a learned Florentine (1451–1512), who participated in two Portuguese voyages to South America, entered the service of Castile in 1505, and filled the position of Royal Pilot from 1508 until his death, a post in which he rendered important services to science, particularly in the construction of maps. The new world was called after him, *not* by him, America. The originator of this name was Martin Waltzemüller (Hylacomylus), from Freiburg, in the Breisgau, professor at St. Dié, in Lorraine (1507). The name of America spread at first only in Germany and Switzerland, and did not come into general use until the close of the sixteenth century.

Note.—The chief claimants for the honor of having been the first landing place of Columbus are Cat Island, Turk's Island, Watling's Island, and Samana. The latter claim was first advanced, and ably advocated, by Captain G. V. Fox, in his "Attempt to Solve the Problem of the First Landing Place of Columbus in the New World." Washington, 1882. (U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.)



100.

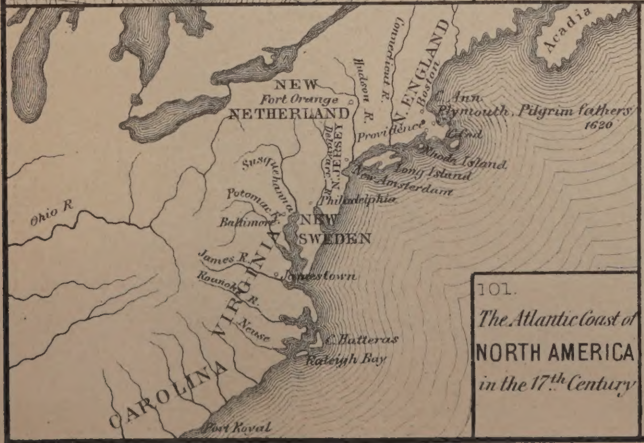
The discoveries of the

SPANIARDS & PORTUGUESE

in the 15th & 16th Century.

Spanish Colonies Blue.

Portuguese " " Yellow.

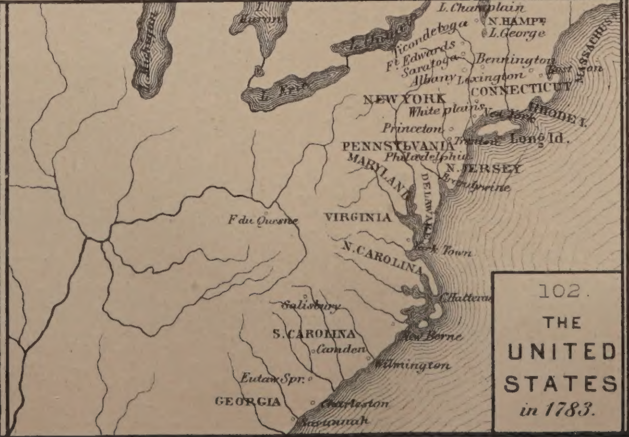


101.

The Atlantic Coast of

NORTH AMERICA

in the 17th Century



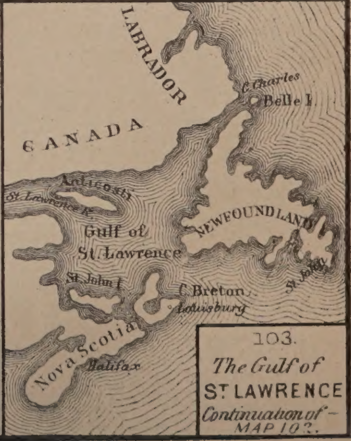
102.

THE

UNITED

STATES

in 1783.



103.

The Gulf of

ST. LAWRENCE

Continuation of —

MAP 102.

THE CONSOLIDATION OF FRANCE.

987–1735.

At the accession of the Capetian dynasty, in 987, the king actually owned the greater part of the later governments of Picardy, Isle de France, and Orleans.

In the course of the twelfth century a power grew up within the bounds of Gaul, which, in extent of territory, threw the dominions of the French king into insignificance. The union of several lines in descent in the same person united England, Normandy, Anjou and Maine in the person of Henry II. His marriage with Eleanor, the heiress of Aquitaine (1152), united the whole of Western France with England. The house of Anjou thus suddenly rose to a dominion equal to that of the French King and all his other vassals put together; a dominion which was further strengthened by the possession of the English kingdom. Henry II. ruled from the Frith of Forth to the Pyrenees. But a favorable moment soon came which enabled the king to add to his own dominion the greater part of the estate of this dangerous vassal. On the death of Richard Cœur de Lion (1199) Normandy and England passed to his brother John, while in the other continental dominions of the Angevin princes the claims of his nephew Arthur, the heir of Brittany, were asserted. The alleged murder of Arthur by John enabled Philip II. to declare all the fiefs which John held of the French crown to be forfeited. Normandy, Touraine, Maine, Anjou and Poitou were joined to the dominions of the French crown, the two first ones forever (1204). The Kings of England still kept the Duchy of Aquitaine, with Gascony. The result of this great and sudden acquisition of territory was to make the French King incomparably greater than any of his own vassals.

The Albigensian war (1207–1229) seemed at first likely to lead to the establishment of the house of Montfort as the chief power of Southern Gaul. But the struggle ended in a vast increase of the power of the French crown. For Amaury de Montfort, the son and heir of the conqueror of Languedoc, resigned his rights over it in favor of the French King, Philip II. (1222). A number of fiefs were in consequence at once annexed to the crown. Toulouse and its county passed to the crown fifty years afterward (1271). Fourteen years later the marriage of Philip the Fair with the heiress of Champagne and Navarre united these countries in a personal union with the French crown. They remained so until 1327. Then Navarre, though it passed to a French prince, was wholly separated from France, while Champagne was incorporated with the kingdom.

Two great struggles which, in the course of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the kings of France had to wage with two of their chief vassals, seemed likely to bring about their utter humiliation, but did actually lead to a large increase of their territory.

The first of these was the so-called *Hundred Years' War*, which began through the attempts of Philip VI. on the Aquitanian dominions of Edward III. Then the King of England found it politic to assume the title of King of France. But the real nature of the controversy was shown at the peace of Bretigny (1360), when Edward III. gave up all claim to the crown of France in exchange for the independent sovereignty of Aquitaine and Gascony, together with the small districts on the Channel, Calais, Guînes and Ponthieu (see map XXXIII.). But within ten years the treaty was broken on the French side, and the actual possessions of England on Gallic soil were cut down to Calais and Guînes, with two small parts of Aquitaine adjoining the cities of Bordeaux and Bayonne. But the tide turned, when the war was carried on with renewed vigor by Henry V. The treaty of Troyes (1420) formally united the crowns of England and France. Paris saw, in 1422, the crowning of an English King (Henry VI.), and only the central part of France obeyed Charles VII., no longer King of Paris, but only of Bourges. But the final result of the war was the driving out of the English from all France except Calais, which the English were suffered to retain until 1558.

At the end of the reign of Louis XI. (1483) all the fiefs of the French crown which could make any claim to the character of separate sovereignty had, with the exception of Brittany, been added to the dominions of the crown. The marriages of its Duchess, Anne, with two successive French kings, Charles VIII. and Louis XII., added Brittany to France. The final incorporation took place in 1532.

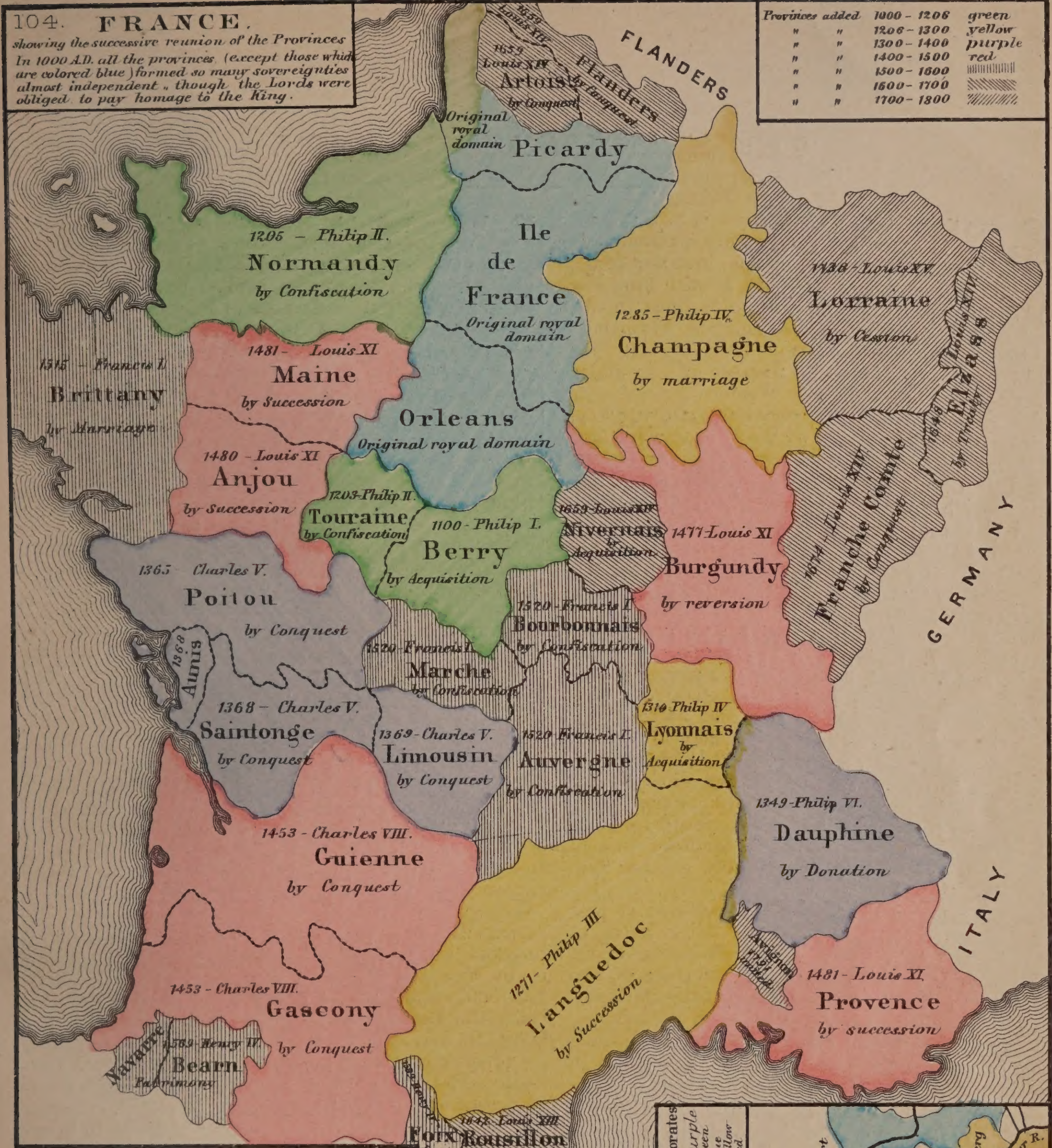
The old kingdom of Navarre, as guardian of the Pass of Roncesvalles, contained a small territory to the north of the Pyrenees. Finally, in the person of Henry IV., the crown of France passed to a King of Navarre, who held only that part of his kingdom which lay north of the Pyrenees, and which was now permanently united with it (1589).

Originally France had on its eastern border the Burgundian kingdom (see map XXIX.). This whole kingdom was gradually almost entirely swallowed up by France, a process which spread over more than 500 years, from the annexation of Lyons by Philip the Fair, in 1310, to the last annexation of Savoy, in 1860.

The advance at the expense of Germany did not begin until the greater part of the Burgundian kingdom was already swallowed up. The Saône remained a boundary stream long after the Rhone had ceased to be one. It was on the latter river that the great Burgundian annexations began.

The acquisition of Dauphiné, in 1349, made France the immediate neighbor of Italy; the acquisition of Provence, in 1481, at once strengthened this last position and more than doubled her Mediterranean coast.

The annexations of France at the expense of Germany began in the middle of the sixteenth century. The first great advance was the practical annexation of the three Lotharingian bishoprics, Metz, Toul and Verdun (1552). By the peace of Nimwegen (1678) France acquired the imperial county of Burgundy and the Jura as boundary. By the incorporation of Lorraine, in 1738, the scattered possessions of France between Champagne and the Rhine were firmly consolidated, and the kingdom now stretched as a solid and unbroken mass from the ocean to the Rhine.

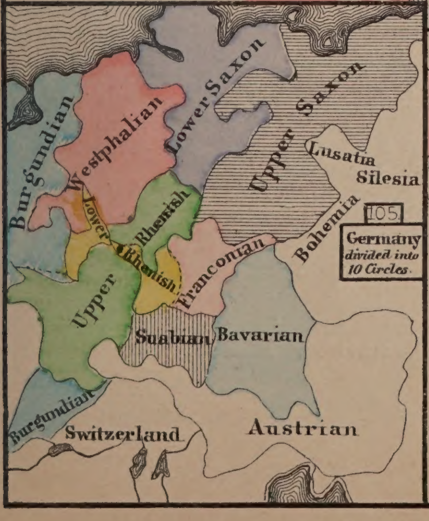


104. **FRANCE**, *showing the successive reunion of the Provinces*

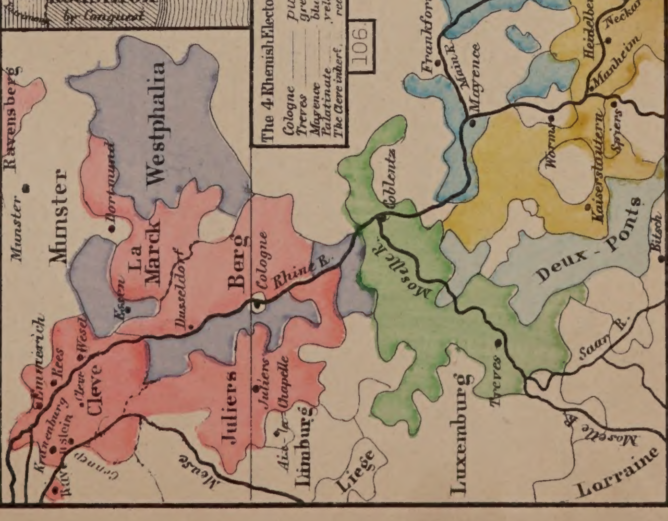
In 1000 A.D. all the provinces (except those which are colored blue) formed so many sovereignties almost independent, though the Lords were obliged to pay homage to the King.

Provinces added			
Provinces added		1000 - 1206	green
"	"	1206 - 1300	yellow
"	"	1300 - 1400	purple
"	"	1400 - 1500	red
"	"	1500 - 1600	▥
"	"	1600 - 1700	▧
"	"	1700 - 1800	▨

FLANDERS
1659 Louis XIV
1659 Louis XIV Artois by Conquest
Flanders by Conquest
Original royal domain
Picardy
1205 - Philip II. Normandy by Confiscation
Ile de France Original royal domain
1285 - Philip IV. Champagne by marriage
1736 - Louis XV. Lorraine by Cession
1648 Louis XIV Elzass by Treaty
1515 - Francis I. Brittany by Marriage
1481 - Louis XI Maine by Succession
Orleans Original royal domain
1480 - Louis XI Anjou by succession
1203 - Philip II. Touraine by Confiscation
1100 - Philip I. Berry by Acquisition
1659 - Louis XIV Nivernais by Acquisition
1477 Louis XI Burgundy by reversion
1674 - Louis XIV Franche Comte by Conquest
GERMANY
1365 - Charles V. Poitou by Conquest
1368 Aunis
1520 - Francis I. Bourbonnais by Confiscation
1520 - Francis I. Marche by Confiscation
1368 - Charles V. Saintonge by Conquest
1369 - Charles V. Limousin by Conquest
1520 Francis I. Auvergne by Confiscation
1310 Philip IV Lyonnais by Acquisition
1349 - Philip VI. Dauphine by Donation
1453 - Charles VIII. Guienne by Conquest
ITALY
1271 - Philip III Languedoc by Succession
Avignon
1481 - Louis XI Provence by succession
1453 - Charles VIII. Gascony by Conquest
Navarre
1589 Henry IV. Bearn Patrimony
1642 Louis XIII Foix Rousillon by Conquest



105 Germany divided into 10 Circles.



106. The 4 Rhenish Electorates

Cologne ——— purple
Treves ——— green
Mayence ——— blue
Palatinate ——— yellow
The Cleve inhert. red

THE SPANISH ASCENDENCY.

During the sixteenth century Spain was the leading power in Europe. It was an ascendency which had been gained by unquestioned superiority in all the arts of policy and of war. Spanish diplomacy and Spanish arms absolutely controlled the greater part of Western Europe. This union of the fairest portions of Europe, under the over-lordship of Spain, had been brought about by a long series of prudent marriages.

Mary, only daughter of Charles the Bold, and heiress of the wealthy Netherlands, and the Countess of Burgundy and Charolais, had married Maximilian, the heir of all the Habsburg possessions. Their only son, Philip, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand (King of Aragon and Naples) and Isabella (Queen of Castile), hence heiress of the three kingdoms and the American colonies. All these lands descended to Charles of Habsburg, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna.

When the empire became vacant by the death of Maximilian I. (1519), and the Kings of France, Spain, and England, demanded the imperial crown, the electors, fearing to impose on themselves a master, offered it to one of their own body—Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony. This prince, however, showed himself worthy of his name, by inducing them to choose Charles of Habsburg. Of the three candidates, Charles was the most dangerous for German freedom, but he also was the most capable of defending Germany against the Turks. Selim and Soliman revived at that time the fear which had been experienced by Europe in the days of Mahomet II. The ruler of Spain, Naples and Austria could alone close the civilized world against the barbarians of Africa and Asia.

With their candidature for the imperial crown, burst forth the inextinguishable rivalry between Francis I. and Charles V., who now followed up the Burgundian policy of Charles the Bold, systematically to weaken France. He drove her from Italy (battle of Pavia, 1525), and seized on Milan, in addition to Naples, and this in conjunction with Pope Clement VII., who needed the good-will of the emperor to assist him to repress the rising doctrines of Luther. Charles reigned over almost the whole of Western Europe, and guided at his will the policy and resources of his brother Ferdinand in Eastern Europe, who ruled, since 1526, over the wide lands of Bohemia, Hungary and Austria.

In the far West his soldiers conquered boundless realms (Mexico, Peru), and it seemed as if he intended to revive the spirit of the Crusades, when, in 1535, he took Tunis by assault and restored to freedom 20,000 Christian slaves. They were brought back to their homes at the expense of the emperor, and caused the name of Charles V. to be blessed throughout Europe.

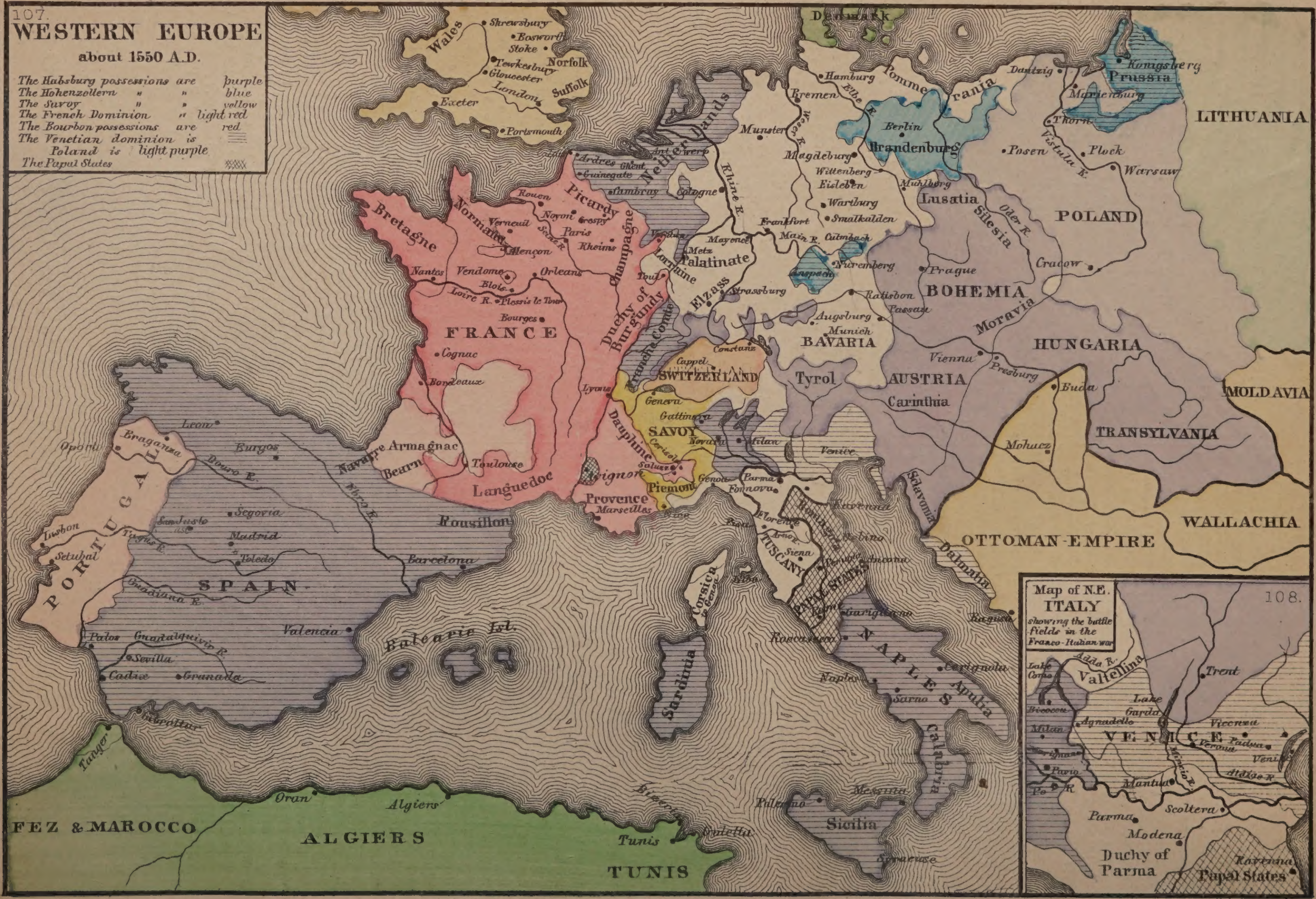
When the long war with France had been finally brought to an end by the *Peace of Cressy* (1544), Charles used all his energy to crush the independence of the estates of the empire in Germany, and to restore the unity of the Church, to which he was urged by Pope Paul III., who concluded an alliance with him and promised money and troops. The Protestants, warned by the Pope's imprudence, who proclaimed the war as a crusade, rose up under the elector of Saxony and the landgrave of Hessia to the number of 80,000. Abandoned by France, England and Denmark, who had excited them to war, they would have been, nevertheless, sufficiently strong if they had remained united, but while they were pressing hard Charles V., who lay intrenched behind the walls of Ingolstadt, young Maurice, Duke of Saxony, who had secretly been treating with him, betrayed the Protestant cause and invaded the States of his relative the elector. Charles V. had simply to overpower the scattered members of the league. As soon as the deaths of Henry VIII. (January 28, 1547), and of Francis I. (March 31, 1547), had deprived the Protestants of all hope of assistance, he marched against the elector of Saxony, and defeated him at Mühlberg (April 24, 1547).

While Maurice, who had been rewarded for his treason by the electorate, found himself the plaything of the emperor, he was stung to the quick by the circulation of numbers of broad sheets, in which he was called apostate and traitor. He wanted to redeem his first treason by a second. He concealed his plans with profound dissimulation. He raised an army without alarming the emperor. At the same time he treated secretly with the king of France.

The emperor received simultaneously two manifestoes, one from Maurice, in the name of Germany; the other from Henry II. of France, who called himself the Protector of the Princes of the Empire, and who headed his manifesto with a cap of liberty between two daggers.

While the French invaded Germany and took possession of Metz, Toul and Verdun, Maurice advanced by long marches on Inspruck (1552). Charles V., ill, and without troops, set out at night in pouring rain, and had himself carried toward the mountains of Carinthia. If Maurice had not been stopped by a mutiny, the emperor would have fallen into his hands. He was forced, however, to submit. The emperor concluded with the Protestants the truce of Passau, and the ill success of the war which he sustained against France changed this truce into a definitive peace (Augsburg, 1555).

The aged emperor, abandoned by fortune, *who loves not the old*, gave up the empire to his brother, and his kingdom to his son, and spent the remainder of his days in the seclusion of San Yuste. The funeral which he is said, though falsely, to have caused to be solemnized during his lifetime, would only have been too faithful an image of the eclipsed glory which he survived. Died 1558.


107.
WESTERN EUROPE
about 1550 A.D.
The Habsburg possessions are purple
The Hohenzollern " " blue
The Savoy " " yellow
The French Dominion " light red
The Bourbon possessions are red
The Venetian dominion is ▤
Poland is light purple
The Papal States ▩
Wales
Shrewsbury
Bosworth
Stoke
Norfolk
Tewkesbury
Gloucester
Suffolk
London
Exeter
Portsmouth
Denmark
Konigsberg
Prussia
Marienburg
Dantzig
Pommerania
Hamburg
Bremen
Elbe R.
Weser R.
Munster
Berlin
Brandenburg
Thorn
Vistula R.
Posen
Plock
Warsaw
LITHUANIA
Magdeburg
Wittenberg
Eisleben
Muhlberg
Lusatia
Silesia
Oder R.
POLAND
Netherlands
Antwerp
Ghent
Ardres
Guinegate
Cambray
Cologne
Rhine R.
Wartburg
Smalkalden
Frankfort
Main R.
Culmbach
Mayence
Metz
Palatinate
Lorraine
Toul
Verdun
Anspach
Nuremberg
Prague
Cracow
BOHEMIA
Elzass
Strassburg
Ratisbon
Passau
Augsburg
Munich
BAVARIA
Moravia
HUNGARIA
Vienna
Presburg
Bretagne
Normandy
Rouen
Picardy
Verneuil
Noyon
Crespy
Senlis
Paris
Rheims
Champagne
Alençon
Nantes
Vendome
Blois
Orleans
Loire R.
Plessis le Tour
Bourges
FRANCE
Duchy of Burgundy
Franche Comte
Constanz
Cappel
SWITZERLAND
Tyrol
AUSTRIA
Carinthia
Buda
MOLDAVIA
Cognac
Bordeaux
Lyons
Geneva
Gattinara
SAVOY
Novara
Milan
Venice
Mohacz
TRANSYLVANIA
Leon
Oporto
Braganza
Burgos
Douro R.
Navarre
Armagnac
Bearn
Toulouse
Languedoc
Avignon
Dauphiné
Cerisoli
Saluzzo
Piemont
Genoa
Parma
Fornova
Ravenna
Sclavonia
PORTUGAL
Segovia
San Justo
Madrid
Tagus R.
Ebro R.
Lisbon
Toledo
Setubal
Barcelona
Rousillon
Provence
Marseilles
Nice
Pisa
Florence
Arno R.
Siena
TUSCANY
Urbino
Ancona
Dalmatia
OTTOMAN-EMPIRE
WALLACHIA
SPAIN
Guadiana R.
Corsica
Elba
PAPAL STATES
Rome
Garigliano
Ragusa
Valencia
Palos
Guadalquivir R.
Sevilla
Cadiz
Granada
Gibraltar
Balearic Isl.
Sardinia
Roccasecca
NAPLES
Naples
Sarno
Cerignola
Apulia
Calabria
Tanger
Oran
Algiers
Bizerta
Goletta
Palermo
Messina
Sicilia
Syracuse
FEZ & MAROCCO
ALGIERS
Tunis
TUNIS
Map of N.E. ITALY showing the battle fields in the Franco-Italian war
108.
Adda R.
Lake Como
Valtellina
Trent
Lake Garda
Bicocca
Agnadello
Milan
VENICE
Vicenza
Padua
Verona
Venice
Pavia
Mincio R.
Adige R.
Po R.
Mantua
Parma
Scoltera
Modena
Duchy of Parma
Ravenna
Papal States

GLORY AND FALL OF THE SPANISH MONARCHY.

Already King of England (as husband of Mary Tudor) and of Naples and Duke of Milan, Philip II. received, by his father's solemn resignation, on the twenty-fifth of October, 1555, the Burgundian heritage, and a month later Charles ceded to him the crowns of Castile and Aragon with their dependencies in the Old World and in the New. The empire, indeed, passed to his uncle Ferdinand; but, with this exception, the whole of his father's vast dominions lay now in his grasp. Philip II. was an entirely Castilian prince, who wanted to establish everywhere the Spanish forms of administration, legislation and religion. At first he restrained himself, in order not to loose his hold on England. But after the death of Mary, and Elizabeth's refusal to marry him (1553), he no longer dissimulated.

The destruction of more than 400 churches by the mob in the Netherlands gave him a welcome occasion to begin with the extermination of the Protestants. The Duke of Alba was ordered to march with a Spanish army into the Netherlands (1566). On his arrival he established the *Council of Blood*, which executed all who were in the least suspected of having aided and abetted in the desecration of the churches. For a moment all was silent and submissive, and when finally they did try to shake off the yoke, they were quickly subdued. In 1572 the power of Philip II. had reached its height. The Netherlands were at his feet. In the East his troubles from the pressure of the Turks seemed brought to an end by the brilliant victory at Lepanto (October 7, 1571), in which his fleet with those of Venice and the Pope annihilated the fleet of Sultan Selim II. He could throw his whole weight upon the Calvinism of the West, and above all upon France, where the Guises were fast sinking into mere partisans of Spain. The common danger drew France and England together, and Catharine de Medicis strove to bind the two countries in one political action by offering to Elizabeth the hand of her son Anjou. But at this moment of danger the whole situation was changed by the second rising of the Netherlands. Driven to despair by the greed and persecution of Alba they rose in a revolt which, after strange alternations of fortune, gave to the world the Republic of the United Provinces. The opening which this rising afforded was seized by the Huguenot leaders as a political engine to break the power which Catharine exercised over Charles IX. He, dreading the power of Spain, and eager to grasp the opportunity of breaking it by a seizure of the Netherlands, listened to the counsels of Coligni, who pressed for war upon Philip and promised the support of the Huguenots in an invasion of the low countries. But to Catharine the supremacy of the Huguenots seemed as fatal to the crown as the supremacy of the Catholics. She suddenly united with the Guises and suffered them to rouse the fanatical mob of Paris, while she won back Charles IX. by picturing the royal power as about to pass into the hands of Coligni. On the 24th of August, St. Bartholomew's Day, the plot broke out in an awful massacre in which 100,000 Protestants perished. Instead of conquering the Netherlands, France plunged madly back into a chaos of civil war, and the Dutch were left to cope single-handed with the armies of Spain. They offered successively to submit to the German branch of the house of Austria, to France and to England. At length the United Provinces, considered as a prey by all to whom they applied, determined to remain a Republic.

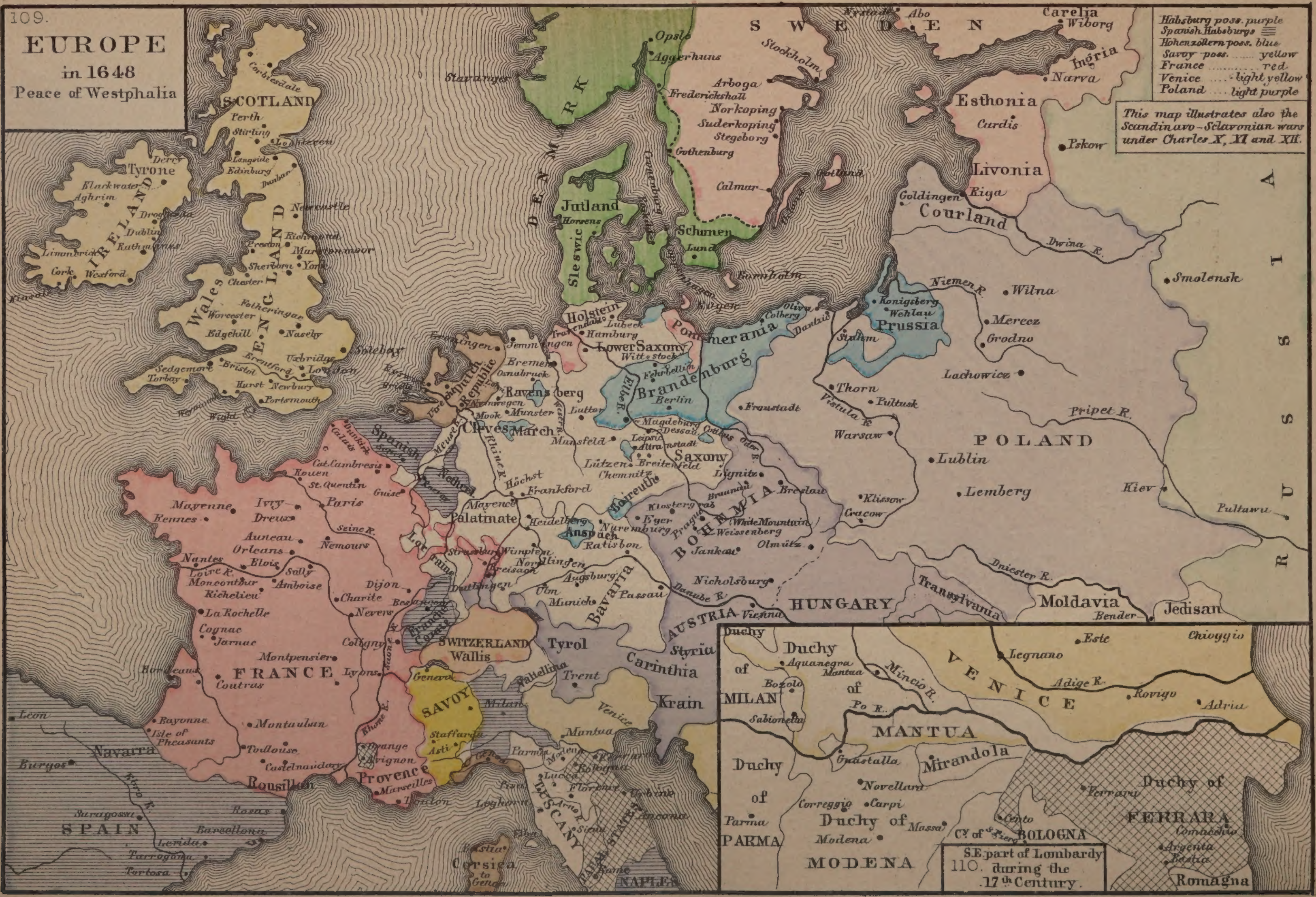
They concluded, in 1579, the union of Utrecht. The genius of this new-born state was the Prince of Orange, who, abandoning the southern provinces to the invincible Duke of Parma, maintained the struggle by statesmanship until a fanatic, armed by Spain, assassinated him in 1584. The help now furnished the insurgents by the English, under Leicester (1587), induced Philip to fit out the great Armada, which, however, was destroyed by terrible storms and the bravery of the English (1588). After this blow the prosperity and power of Spain began to decline.

Only one thing cheered Philip's last years (he died in 1598), Catholicism began definitely to win ground. Her faith was settled and defined. The ecclesiastical abuses were sternly put down. New religious orders rose to meet the wants of the day; the Capuchins became its preachers; the Jesuits became not only its preachers, but its directors, its schoolmasters, its missionaries, its diplomatists. Everywhere the Jesuits won converts, and their peaceful victories were soon backed by the arm of Spain.

Southern Germany, where the Austrian Habsburgs, so long lukewarm in this faith, had at last become zealots in its defence, was the first country to be recatholicized. In 1619 the childless Emperor Matthias secured for his cousin Ferdinand (grandson of Emperor Ferdinand I.), Duke of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, who had been educated by the Jesuits in strict Catholicism, the succession in Bohemia and Hungary, in spite of the objections of the Protestant estates. Soon afterward he was also elected emperor.

In the meantime the Bohemians had deposed him from the throne of Bohemia and elected the young Frederick V., elector Palatine, head of the Protestant *Union* and son-in-law of James I., King of England (*The Winter King*). Emperor Ferdinand II. called in the help of Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, head of the Catholic *League*, who marched to Bohemia and drove the Winter King out of Prague. He was put under the ban and his lands confiscated (1620). This was the beginning of the terrible *Thirty Years' War* (1618–1648), the last struggle which marked the progress of the reformation. It is generally divided into four periods, which were properly as many different wars.

The first two, the Bohemian (1618–1623), and the Danish (1625–1629), had a predominant religious character; they developed from the revolt in Bohemia to a general attack by Catholic upon Protestant Europe. The latter two, the Swedish (1630–1635), and the Franco-Swedish (1635–1648), were political wars; wars against the power of the house of Habsburg and wars of conquest on the part of Sweden and France upon German soil. The peace of Westphalia (1648) made an end to the terrible struggle, which had turned large tracts of central Europe into a wilderness, and the effect of which upon Germany is not yet effaced.



109.

EUROPE
in 1648
Peace of Westphalia

This map illustrates also the Scandinavo-Sclavonian wars under Charles X, XI and XII.

110. S.E. part of Lombardy during the 17th Century.

THE FRENCH ASCENDENCY.

In 1648, France was the dominant power in Christendom. The Thirty Years' War had broken the strength of all the nations around her. It alone profited by the general wreck. Its compact and fertile territory, the natural activity and enterprise of its people, and the rapid growth of its commerce and manufactures, were sources of natural wealth which even its heavy taxation failed to check, and the policy, which gathered all local power into the hands of the crown, gave it for the moment an air of good government, and a command over its internal resources, which no other country could boast of. Now followed the most complete triumph of royalty, the most perfect acquiescence of a people in the sovereignty of one man, that had ever existed. Richelieu had subdued the nobles and the Protestants; and the Fronde ruined the parliament by showing what it was worth. Only the king and the people were left standing in France; the latter lived in the former.

The young Louis XIV. was perfectly suited for this magnificent part. His cold and dignified countenance reigned over France for fifty years with unimpaired majesty. When, in 1665, Philip IV. of Spain died, his son-in-law, Louis XIV., laid claim to Belgium and Burgundy on the ground that, being the personal estates of the royal family of Spain, their descent ought to be regulated by the local "*droit de devolution*." The renunciation of her heritage which his wife, Maria Theresa, had made, was, Louis claimed, invalid, since the stipulated dowry had never been paid.

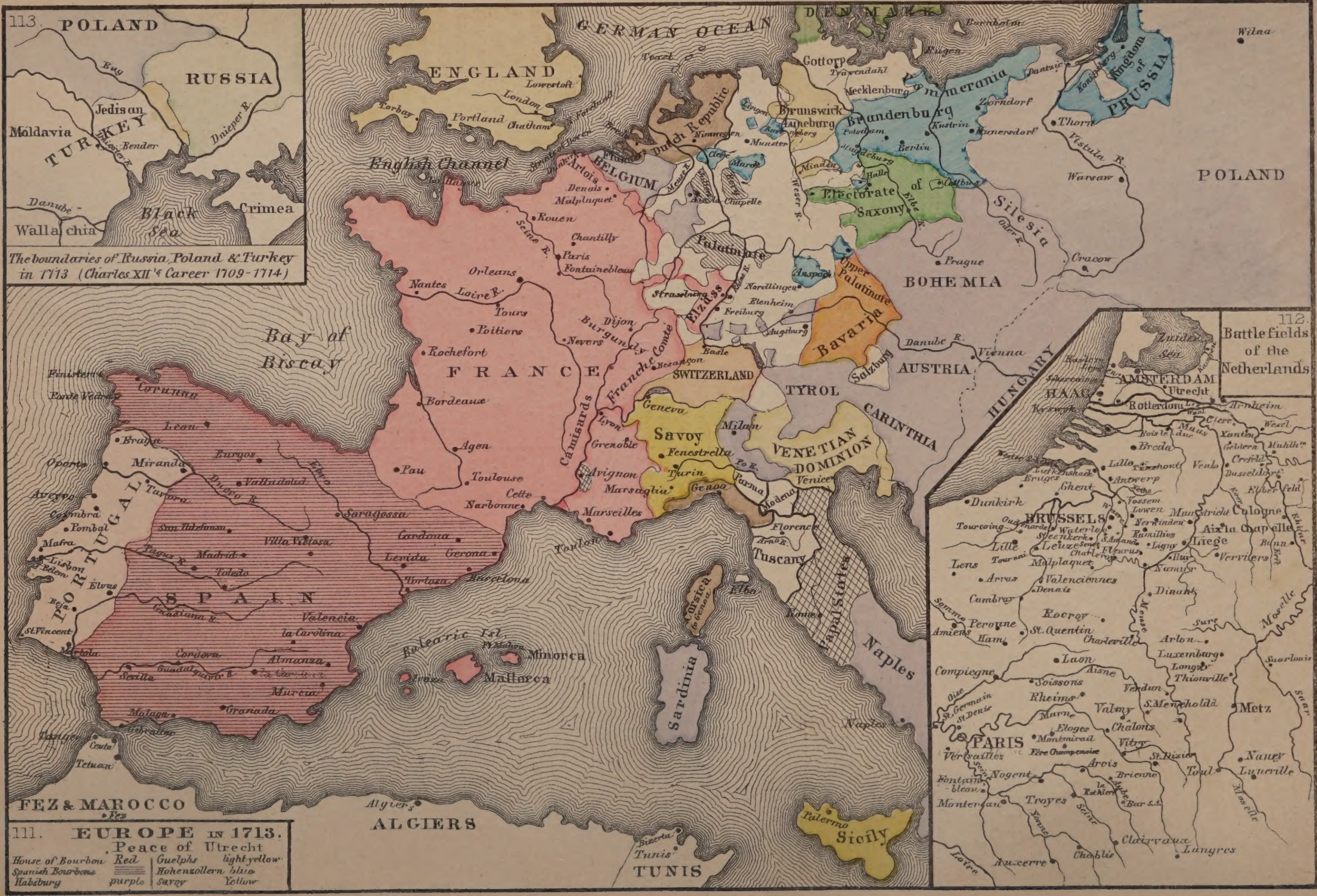
The French army entered (1667) Flanders, which was taken in two months. In January, 1668, the troops defiled through Champagne into Burgundy, and fell upon Franche Comté, which was entirely occupied in seventeen days. This rapid success alarmed Holland, which did not care to have the "great king" for a neighbor. By the exertions of Jan de Witt and Sir William Temple, England, Holland and Sweden concluded the triple alliance (January 23, 1668), which forced Louis to acquiesce in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. He was obliged to content himself with French Flanders, and to restore Franche Comté (the county of Burgundy) to Spain.

The course of the Dutch in these transactions had inflamed the hatred of Louis against them, a hatred made still stronger by the refuge given by the provinces to political writers, who annoyed him with their abusive publications. To gain his purpose, the destruction or the humiliation of Holland, Louis secured the disruption of the triple alliance by buying, for a sum down, the alliance of England and Sweden. Suddenly (June, 1672), 100,000 men moved from France toward Holland, and overran Gelderland, Utrecht and Over-Yssel, without opposition. It was only by skill and desperate courage that the Dutch ships, under De Ruyter, held the English fleet, under the Duke of York, at bay in an obstinate battle off the coast of Suffolk. Till almost the eve of the struggle, the Dutch had been wrapt in a false security, which only broke down when the glare of the French watch-fires was seen from the walls of Amsterdam.

De Witt and his brother were murdered in a popular tumult, and their fall called William, the Prince of Orange, to the head of the republic, who armed against Louis, Spain, and Austria. He next separated England from France. Gradually, nearly the whole of Europe declared themselves against Louis XIV. (1674). It was then necessary to abandon the Dutch fortresses. As usual, compensation was made at the expense of Spain. Louis XIV. took Franche Comté. This second conquest had cost a little more trouble than the first (in 1668); but it was definitive. The two Burgundies were no more to be separated, and France was never again to lose her frontier of the Jura.

The struggle against Europe was continued until 1678 (Peace of Nimwegen). France emerged from it successfully, thanks to the genius of her great generals—Condé and Turenne. The peace of Nimwegen was the culminating point of Louis XIV.'s glory. In the name of his sister-in-law, Charlotte Elizabeth, Duchess of Orleans, he claimed also a portion of the Palatinate, invoking in this, as in the case of Flanders in 1665, civil against feudal rights. The League of Augsburg was formed to protest against this claim. Louis' answer was the frightful devastation of the Palatinate, by order of Louvois, executed by Melac (October, 1688). This, added to the countenance given by Louis to the exiled James II., changed the "League of Augsburg" in the "Grand Alliance." This period of the reign of Louis XIV. was filled by two wars of succession: succession to the English and succession to the Spanish crown. The former war was terminated honorably for France, by the Treaty of Ryswyk (1698), and yet the result was against her, for William was recognized as King of England.

In the second war, terminated by the Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt (1712–1714), France sustained the most humiliating reverses, but the result was in her favor. Spain, secured to a grandson of Louis XIV. (the Duke of Anjou as Philip V.,) was henceforth open to the influence of France. It was not, however, the whole of the Spanish monarchy, as it existed in 1700, that came in 1713 to Philip V. The Austrian branch of the Habsburgs received Belgium, Milan, Naples and Sardinia, while Sicily, as a kingdom, was given to the House of Savoy.



111. **EUROPE IN 1713.**
Peace of Utrecht

House of Bourbon Red | Guelphs light yellow
Spanish Bourbons ▤ | Hohenzollern blue
Habsburg purple | Savoy Yellow

112. Battlefields of the Netherlands

113. The boundaries of Russia, Poland & Turkey in 1713 (Charles XII's Career 1709-1714)

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA.

The Polish country of Prussia was held since 1226 by the Knights of the Teutonic Order, who, after extirpating the natives (Wends), repeopled the country with settlers, mostly drawn from Northwest Germany.

These Prussians (Germans settled in Prussia), disgusted with the tyranny of the knights, placed themselves (1454) under the protection of Casimir IV., King of Poland, who, after a bloody war, forced the knights to submit to the Treaty of Thorn (1466), by means of which they lost Western Prussia, and became, for Eastern Prussia, vassals of Poland.

In 1525 the Grandmaster Albert of Hohenzollern (sprung from a side-branch of the Hohenzollerns in Brandenburg) turned Lutheran, dissolved the order, and, with the consent of his feudal superior, King Sigismund of Poland, became hereditary Duke of Eastern Prussia, but still in feudal subjection to Poland. In 1618, on the death of the second Prussian duke Albert Frederick, his son-in-law, John Sigismund, the Elector of Brandenburg, succeeded him in his duchy.

Thus were united the German province of Brandenburg and the Polish province of Prussia.

John Sigismund's grandson, Frederick William (*The Great Elector*), founded the real greatness of the nascent state. A rapid, clear-eyed man, he dexterously used his compact, well-disciplined little army, amid the complications of that eventful period, so as to conserve the Brandenburg interests. He encouraged trade, made roads, and welcomed the Huguenots whom Louis XIV. drove from France. In the first year of the eighteenth century, his son received from Emperor Leopold I., in return for furnishing the emperor troops during the war of the Spanish Succession, permission to assume the title of King *in* Prussia (Frederick I.), and crowned *himself* at Köningsberg (January 18, 1701). The grandson of this first King *in* Prussia was Frederick the Great, who succeeded his father, Frederick William I., in May, 1740.

Within six months (October 20th) the male line of the Habsburgs became extinct, by the death of Emperor Charles VI., whose principal endeavor throughout his whole reign had been to secure the various lands which were united under the Austrian sceptre against division after his death. Hence, he established an order of succession under the name of the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which his daughter Maria Theresa was left mistress of all the hereditary dominions of the house of Habsburg. This arrangement had been guaranteed by all Europe. Europe, however, soon rose, almost in its entirety (England excepted), to oppose it. France claimed *Belgium*, Spain *Milan*, Bavaria *Bohemia*, and Frederick II. of Prussia, *Silesia*. But no one gained his end in this war except Frederick II., who obtained Silesia by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Although Maria Theresa had made peace with Frederick, she never for a moment forgot the loss of Silesia. Its recovery was the great object of her life. She toiled during many years to unite the whole civilized world against Frederick. She early succeeded in obtaining the adhesion of Russia. An ample share of spoil was promised to the King of Poland, who readily promised the assistance of the Saxon forces. France was induced to join the coalition, and the example of France determined the conduct of Sweden, then completely subject to French influence.

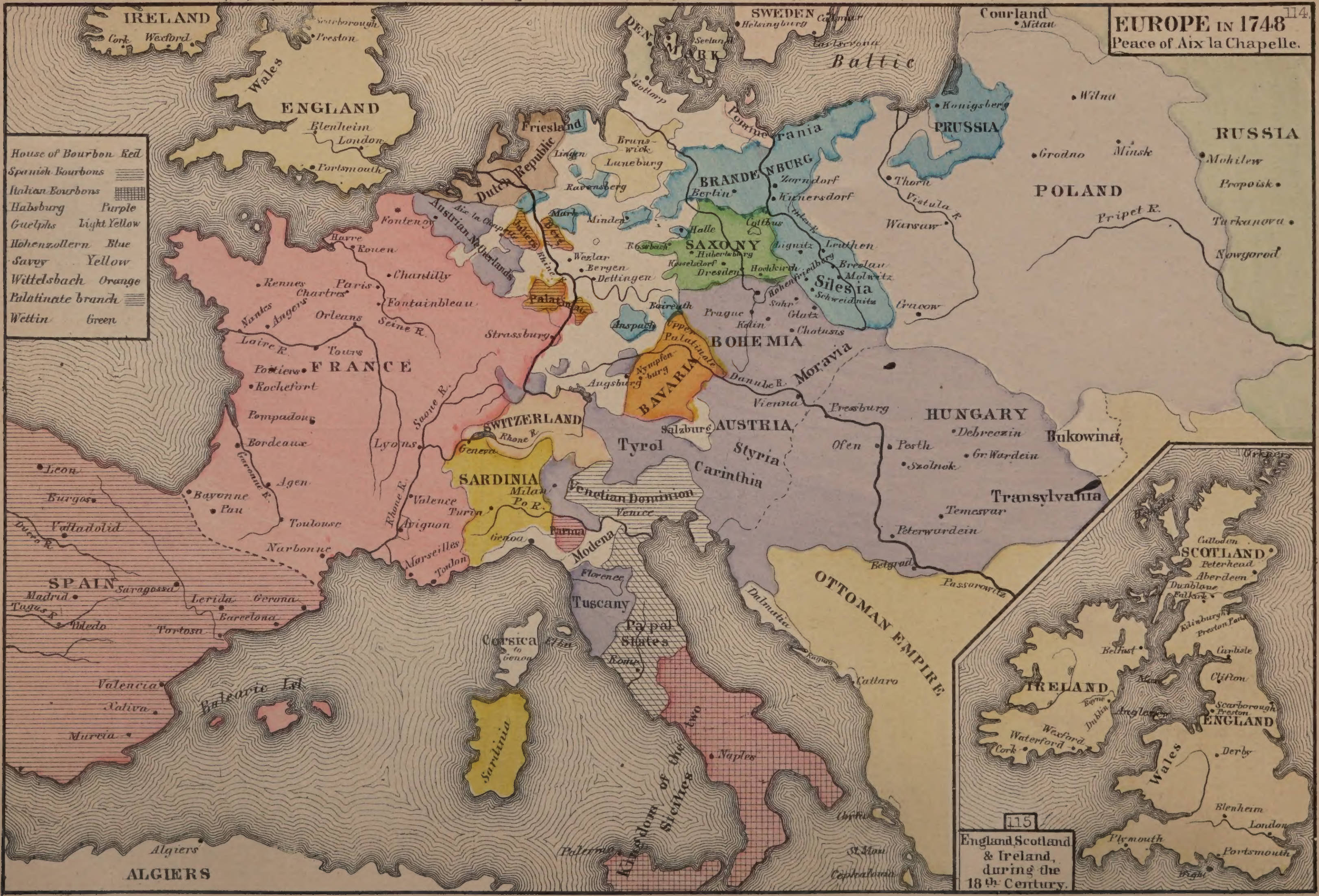
Frederick, who had tools in every court, soon learned that he was to be assailed at once by France, Austria, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and the Germanic body, and that the greater part of his dominions was to be portioned out among his enemies. He determined to strike the first blow. It was in the month of August, 1756, that the *Seven Years' War* commenced. He demanded of Maria Theresa a distinct explanation of her intentions. He received an answer at once haughty and evasive. In an instant the rich electorate of Saxony was overflowed by 67,000 Prussian troops. He defeated the Austrians at Lobositz (October 1st), and surrounding the Saxons, compelled them to surrender and enlist in his ranks (October 16th). The next year he beat the Austrians under the walls of Prague (May 6, 1757). But now misfortunes gathered fast. He met his first great defeat at Kollin (June 18th); the Russians invaded Prussia (August); the Swedes landed in Pomerania, and the French, after capturing the English army in Hanover (June), advanced toward Saxony.

Rallying his men and his courage, he turned upon his foes, and in the short space of thirty days he had extricated himself, with dazzling glory. First he annihilated (November 5, 1757) the French at *Rossbach*, and just a month later (December 5th) the Austrians at *Leuthen*. His genius set all the world to wondering. London was ablaze in his honor, and Pitt, the English prime minister, secured him a grant of $3,500,000 per annum. The third campaign witnessed as signal a victory over the Russians at *Zorndorf* (August 25, 1758). The campaign of 1760, was one of the grandest efforts of his genius. Foiled in an attempt on Dresden, he again saved Silesia by a victory at *Liegnitz* (August 15th), and hurled back an advance of Daun by a victory at *Torgau* (November 3d).

But even victories drained his strength. Men and money alike failed him. It was impossible for him to strike another great blow, and the ring of enemies closed slowly round him. The fall of Pitt (October, 1761), which was followed by a withdrawal of the English subsidy, drove Frederick almost to despair. It was, in fact, only his dogged resolution, and a sudden change in the policy of Russia, which followed on the death of his enemy the Czarina Elizabeth (January 5, 1762), that enabled him at last to retire from the struggle without the loss of an inch of territory. The Peace of Hubertsburg, which made an end to the struggle, was signed February 15, 1763.

After seven years of carnage, during which 886,000 men had perished, everything was replaced, in Europe, precisely in the same state in which it was in 1748. The political results were, however, considerable. England, instead of France, began to be regarded as the leading power, and the predominance of the *five great states* was henceforth established by the success of Prussia. This last result was wholly due to the genius and enterprise of Frederick II., who, in the conduct of the war, displayed qualities which procured for him, from his admirers, the appellation of *the Great.*

XLII.



EUROPE IN 1748
Peace of Aix la Chapelle.

114

England Scotland & Ireland, during the 18th Century.

115

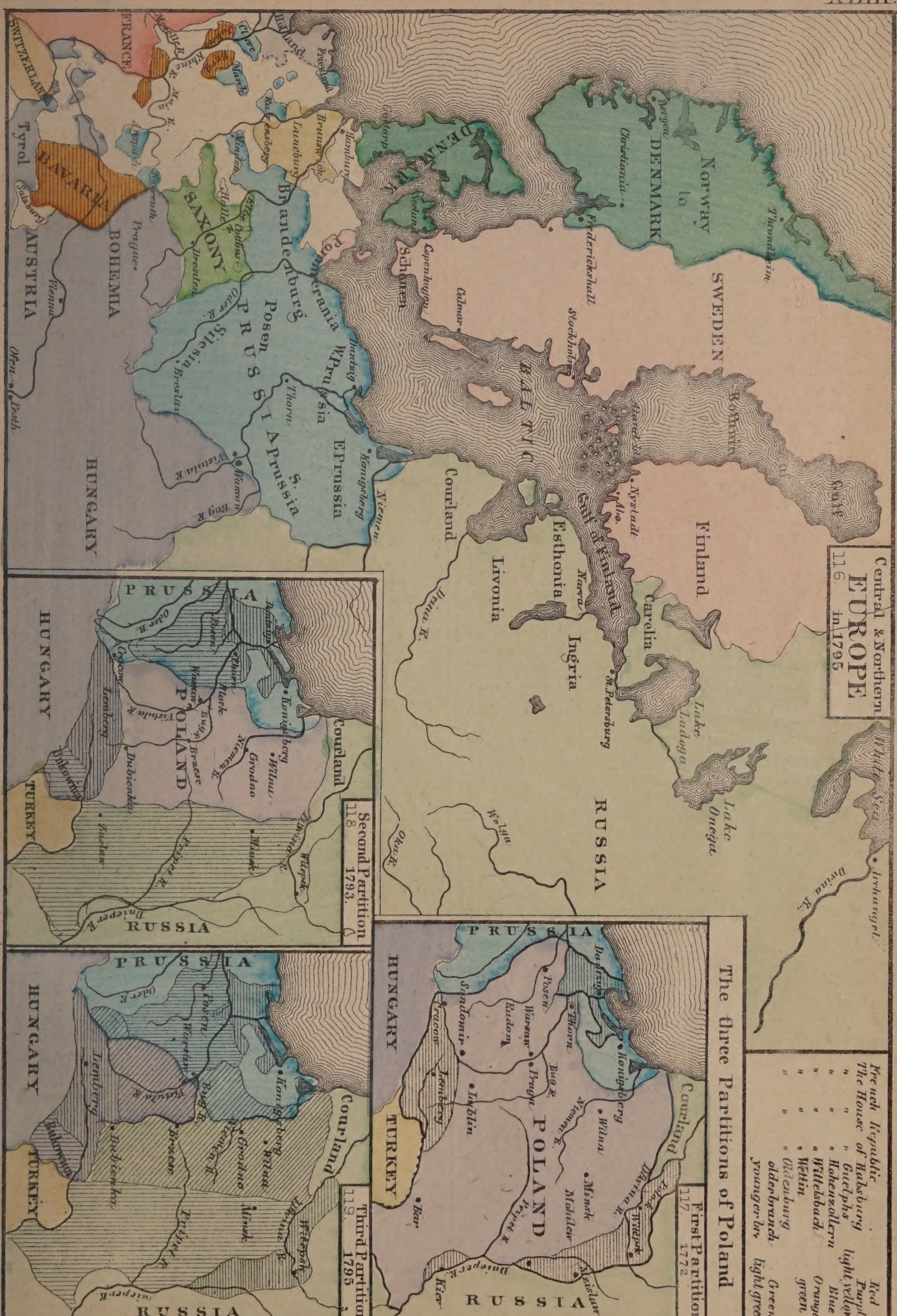
THE PARTITION OF POLAND.

The Slavonic tribes occupying the districts around the central and lower Oder and Vistula called themselves Lechs, and their country Poland, *i.e.*, the Plain. In the tenth century a considerable power arose for the first time in these regions, having its centre at Gnesen, the abiding metropolitan city of Poland. Under Boleslaf (1000 A.D.) a great empire was formed, stretching from the Elbe to the Dnieper, and from the shores of the Baltic to the Carpathians.

Constant divisions among members of the ruling family, the Piasts, did not destroy its national unity and independence. A Polish state always lived on, and from the end of the thirteenth century it took its place as an important European kingdom, holding a distinctive position as the one Slavonic power at once attached to the Western Church and independent of the Western Empire. Casimir the Great (1333–1370), who had added Red Russia, Podolia, and Volhynia to his realm, having no children, resolved to leave his crown to his nephew Louis, son of Charles Robert, the Angevin king of Hungary. With this view, he summoned a national assembly at Cracow, which approved the choice he had made.

This proceeding, however, enabled the Polish nobles to interfere with the succession of the crown and to render it elective, like that of Hungary and Bohemia, so that the Polish state became a sort of aristocratic republic. On the death of Louis, in 1382, his daughter Hedwig was elected queen, whose marriage with Jagiello, Grand Duke of Lithuania, brought about the union of Poland and Lithuania as distinct states under a common sovereign. Jagiello, who received at his baptism the name of Wladislaus, reigned till 1434; and it was he who, in order to obtain a subsidy from the nobles, first established the Polish Diet. This Diet, chosen only by the nobles, possessed the whole power of the government; it elected the king, made the laws, and even took a part in the executive administration. Notwithstanding that the Diet possessed such entensive powers, it lay, since 1632, at the mercy of any single member, who, by virtue of what was called the *Liberum Veto*, might annul its proceedings. In 1764 the Diet elected Stanislaus Poniatowsky to the throne, after he had promised to restore the non-Catholics to all civil rights. When he wanted to carry out his promise the fanaticism of the populace was excited by the priests, who gave out that King Stanislaus intended to abolish Catholicism. In March, 1768, a *Confederation* was formed by the Polish Catholics in the town of Bar, in Podolia, for the purpose of dethroning the king and restoring Polish freedom. Catharine II. of Russia, disgusted with the continual civil war in Poland, drew from this event a fresh pretext for hostility against the Polish republic. Knowing that Russia should not be suffered to aggrandize herself alone, and without the participation of Austria and Prussia, she made secret treaties with both. Frederick the Great now occupied Polish (Western) Prussia, Emperor Joseph II. marched into Southern Poland, and thirty thousand Russians occupied the central provinces. Pulawski, the leader of the *Confederation*, when he heard of the union of the three powers, retired from a hopeless contest, and exhorted its followers to reserve themselves for better times. The powers now proceeded to divide the booty. (See Map 117.) Russia obtained 2,500 square miles, with one and a half million souls; Austria, 1,300 square miles, with two and a half million souls, and Prussia 700 square miles, with a population of about eight hundred thousand souls. Although the Prussian share was smaller than the others, yet it was very valuable to Frederick, because it joined his Prussian kingdom to the main body of the monarchy. The population, too, was richer and more commercial. The Diet of April, 1773, confirmed this first partition. Nearly all the members accepted bribes. On that Diet the ruin of Poland was consummated by its own children, amid every kind of luxury, frivolity, and profligacy. Under Russian auspices a new constitution was made for the curtailed realm, which was promulgated in 1775. When an attempt was made to set aside the constitution in 1792, one Polish party called in the help of Russia. A Russian army, one hundred thousand strong, invaded Poland. Brave but futile resistance was made by Kosciusko, who was defeated at Dubienka. The king joined the confederacy of Targowitz; the new constitution was repealed. Russia and Prussia issued a common proclamation which announced to the Poles that Russia and her former allies had already come to an understanding to preserve the peace of Eastern Europe by a new partition of Poland.

At the Diet of Grodno the consent of the nation to the new cessions was extorted (June, 1793). Prussia got this time more than 1,000 square miles of territory, peopled by more than three and a half million souls; Russia got 4,553 square miles, and a population of more three million souls. Several of the Polish patriots retired now into Saxony. But they were still animated with the hope of rescuing their country from oppression. Kosciusko, hearing of the increasing discontent, hastened to Cracow, where he was proclaimed generalissimo (March 24). Warsaw now rose and massacred every Russian they could find (April 16). Similar scenes took place at Wilna and Grodno. The entire Polish army declared for Kosciusko, who had been invested with dictatorial power. Prussian, Austrian, and Russian troops now poured from all sides into Poland. Kosciusko and his Poles made an heroic resistance. But the valor of these patriots, armed with scythes, hatchets, and hammers, served only to increase the horror of their country's ruin. In his entrenched camp before Warsaw, Kosciusko for a time held his swarming foes at bay. But finally (October 10th, at Maciejowice) he was captured, and a month later Suvaroff entered Warsaw. Russia, Austria, and Prussia now quietly divided their blood-stained prey, and Poland was blotted out from the map of Europe. (See Map 119.) The powers acquired by the *three* partitions about the following increase of territory: Russia, 181,000 square miles, with six million inhabitants; Austria, 45,000 square miles, with three million, seven hundred thousand inhabitants, and Prussia, 57,000 square miles, with two million five hundred thousand inhabitants. It is important to remember that the three partitions gave no part of the original Polish realm to Russia. It simply annexed Lithuania, more than half the territory of which had been originally Russian soil. The real Polish realm fell to the lot of Prussia.



Central & Northern
116. EUROPE
in 1795

The three Partitions of Poland

117. First Partition 1772

118. Second Partition 1793.

119. Third Partition 1795

French Republic . . . Red
The House of Habsburg . . . Purple
" " " Guelphs . . . light yellow
" " " Hohenzollern . . . Blue
" " " Wittelsbach . . . Orange
" " " Wettin . . . green
" " " Oldenburg elder branch . . . Green
younger br. . . . light green

NAPOLEON THE GREAT.

During the second half of the eighteenth century, France occupied an enviable position in Europe. Its government, though despotic, was less oppressive and more influenced by public opinion than that of any other country. Its general wealth, though the nobles enjoyed exemption from any contribution to the public burdens, was large and pretty evenly diffused. Its administration of justice was admirable. But its government suffered from serious financial embarrassments, from which it could only free itself by an appeal to the country at large. Louis XVI. resolved to summon the States-General, which had not met since 1614, and to appeal to the nobles to waive their immunity for taxation.

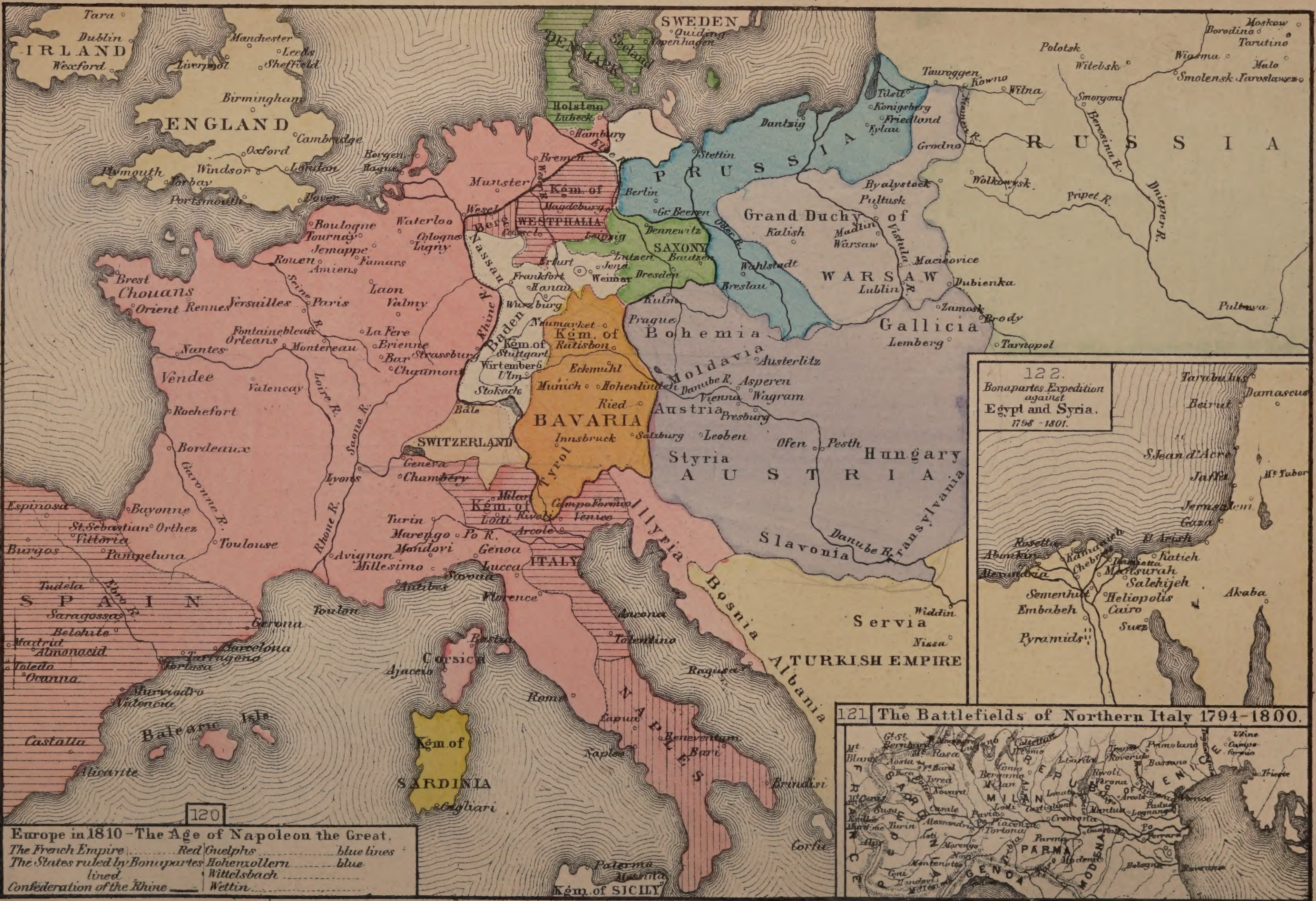
They no sooner met at Versailles (May, 1789) than the fabric of despotism and privilege began to crumble. A rising in Paris destroyed the Bastille (July 14, 1789), and its destruction was taken for the dawn of a new era of constitutional freedom in France and through Europe. It proved to be the beginning of frightful anarchy. In 1795, after six years of revolution, throne and altar, arts and manufactures had been destroyed; the public credit was utterly annihilated, and no taxes to collect; all the main roads, canals, bridges, etc., were in a deplorable state of dilapidation. The armies were not only unpaid, but without clothing or bread. The war on the Rhine had terminated in disaster. The army of Italy had achieved little beyond some obscure successes. It was the appointment of Napoleon Bonaparte to the command of the latter force, in the spring of 1796, that first brought a change for the better.

In a brilliant campaign (1796–97) he forced Austria to make peace at Campo Formio (October 17, 1797), which secured to France the Ionian Islands, Venice, the Netherlands, and the left bank of the Rhine. On his return from Italy, Bonaparte laid before the French Government (the Directory) a plan for the conquest and occupation of Egypt as a preliminary to attack the English in India. The conquest of Egypt proved as easy and complete as Bonaparte had hoped. But the destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir by Nelson (August 1, 1798), cut off all communication between France and Bonaparte's army; and his hopes of making Egypt a starting-point for the conquest of India fell at a blow. But foiled as were his dreams of Indian conquest, his daring genius plunged into wider projects. He conceived the design of the conquest of Syria, Gaza was taken, Jaffa stormed, and Acre, the key of Syria, besieged. But it was stubbornly held by the Turks, and, after a heavy loss by sword and plague, Bonaparte was forced to fall back upon Egypt, which, indeed, was more than ever his own, for a Turkish force which landed near Alexandria was cut to pieces by him in the battle of *Aboukir* (July 25, 1799). But the news of defeat at home and the certainty that all wider hopes in the East were at an end, induced him to leave his army (August 22d). His arrival in Paris (October 14th) was the sign for a change in the government. The Directors were divided among themselves, and a revolution put an end to their power (November 10th).

Three Consuls took the place of the five Directors; but under the name of First Consul, Bonaparte became in effect sole ruler of the country. He found France surrounded on all sides by bitter enemies, bent on its destruction. Crossing the St. Bernard with his army, he gained (June 14, 1800) such a victory, at *Marengo*, that they were glad to make peace with the republic. (Lunéville, February 19, 1801—Amiens, March, 1802.)

But the peace brought no rest to England. The new social vigor the revolution had given to France, through the abolition of privileges and the creation of a new middle class on the ruins of the clergy and the nobles, still lived on. Bonaparte, by his restoration of the Church, his recall of the exiles, and the economy and wise administration which distinguished his rule, was enabled to seize this national vigor for the furtherance of his own plans. Soon it became plain that a struggle between England and France was inevitable, and in May, 1803, the armaments preparing in the French ports hastened the formal declaration of war. An invasion of England was planned on a gigantic scale. A camp of 100,000 men was formed at Boulogne. The invasion seemed imminent, when Napoleon, who, on May 18, 1804, had been proclaimed emperor, appeared personally in the camp. To divert this danger, Pitt had formed an alliance with Russia, Austria, and Sweden. This forced Napoleon to abandon the dream of invading England, to meet the coalition in his rear, and swinging round his forces on the Danube, he forced an Austrian army to a shameful capitulation in Ulm (October 17, 1805). From Ulm he marched on Vienna and crushed the combined armies of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz (December 2, 1805). Prussia, which had played a double game during the war, was next attacked. The decisive victories of Jena and Auerstädt (October 4, 1806) laid it at Napoleon's feet, who (October 27th) entered Berlin. From Berlin he marched to Eastern Prussia, and though checked in the winter by the Russian forces in the hard-fought battle of Eylau (February, 1807), his victory of Friedland (June 14) brought Alexander of Russia to consent to the peace of Tilsit (July 7, 1807). Prussia had to surrender its whole Polish territory, save West Prussia. The rest of the Prussian share of Poland formed the *Duchy of Warsaw.*

Napoleon was now absolutely master of Western Europe. Prussia was occupied by French troops. Holland was changed into a monarchy and its crown given to his brother Louis. Another brother, Jerome, became King of Westphalia; a third brother, Joseph, was made King of Naples, while the rest of Italy and even Rome itself was annexed to the French Empire. On the refusal of Portugal to join the continental system (the closure of the continent to British trade), France and Spain agreed to divide Portugal between them; and the reigning house of Braganza fled helplessly from Lisbon to a refuge in



120

Europe in 1810 – The Age of Napoleon the Great.

The French Empire .... Red
The States ruled by Bonapartes lined
Confederation of the Rhine ——
Guelphs .... blue lines
Hohenzollern .... blue
Wittelsbach ....
Wettin ....

121 The Battlefields of Northern Italy 1794-1800.

122.
Bonapartes Expedition against Egypt and Syria.
1798 -1801.

Brazil. But the seizure of Portugal was only meant as a prelude to the seizure of Spain. Charles IV. and his son Ferdinand were drawn to Bayonne (May, 1808), and forced to resign their claims to the Spanish crown, while the French army entered Madrid and proclaimed Joseph Bonaparte (since 1806 King of Naples) King of Spain; Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat (since 1806 grand-duke of Berg), taking the throne of Naples instead of Joseph.

The new king had hardly entered Madrid, when Spain rose as one man against the stranger. The English at once sent troops under Sir John Moore and Sir Arthur Wellesley to aid the Spaniards.

Napoleon hastened in person to Spain with 250,000 men, advanced to Madrid and with *Soult* drove the English from Spain (Battle of Corunna, January 16, 1809).

But the English force at Lisbon, which had already prepared to leave Portugal, was reinforced with 13,000 fresh troops and placed under command of Sir Arthur Wellesley.

At this critical moment, the best of the French troops with the Emperor himself were drawn from the Peninsula to the Danube. English gold had roused Austria to a renewal of the struggle. But Austria was driven to sue for peace by a decisive victory of Napoleon at Wagram (July 5, 1809). After the peace of Schönbrunn (October 14, 1809), which seemed to have consolidated his power, Napoleon resolved to strengthen and perpetuate his dynasty by marrying Maria Louisa, the daughter of Emperor Francis II. (March 9, 1810).

The Peace of Schönbrunn had brought the Napoleonic Empire to its widest bounds (See Map xliv). The fabric of this sovereignty was raised upon the ruins of all that was obsolete and forceless upon the continent; the benefits as well as the wrongs of his supremacy were now seen in their widest operations.

Western Europe received in the Code Napoleon a law, which, to an extent hitherto unknown in Europe, brought social justice into the daily affairs of life. The privileges of the noble, the feudal burdens of the peasant, the monopolies of the guilds, passed away, in most instances forever. The comfort and improvement of mankind were vindicated as the true aim of property by the abolition of the devices which convert the soil into an instrument of family pride, and by the enforcement of a fair division of inheritances among the children of the possessors.

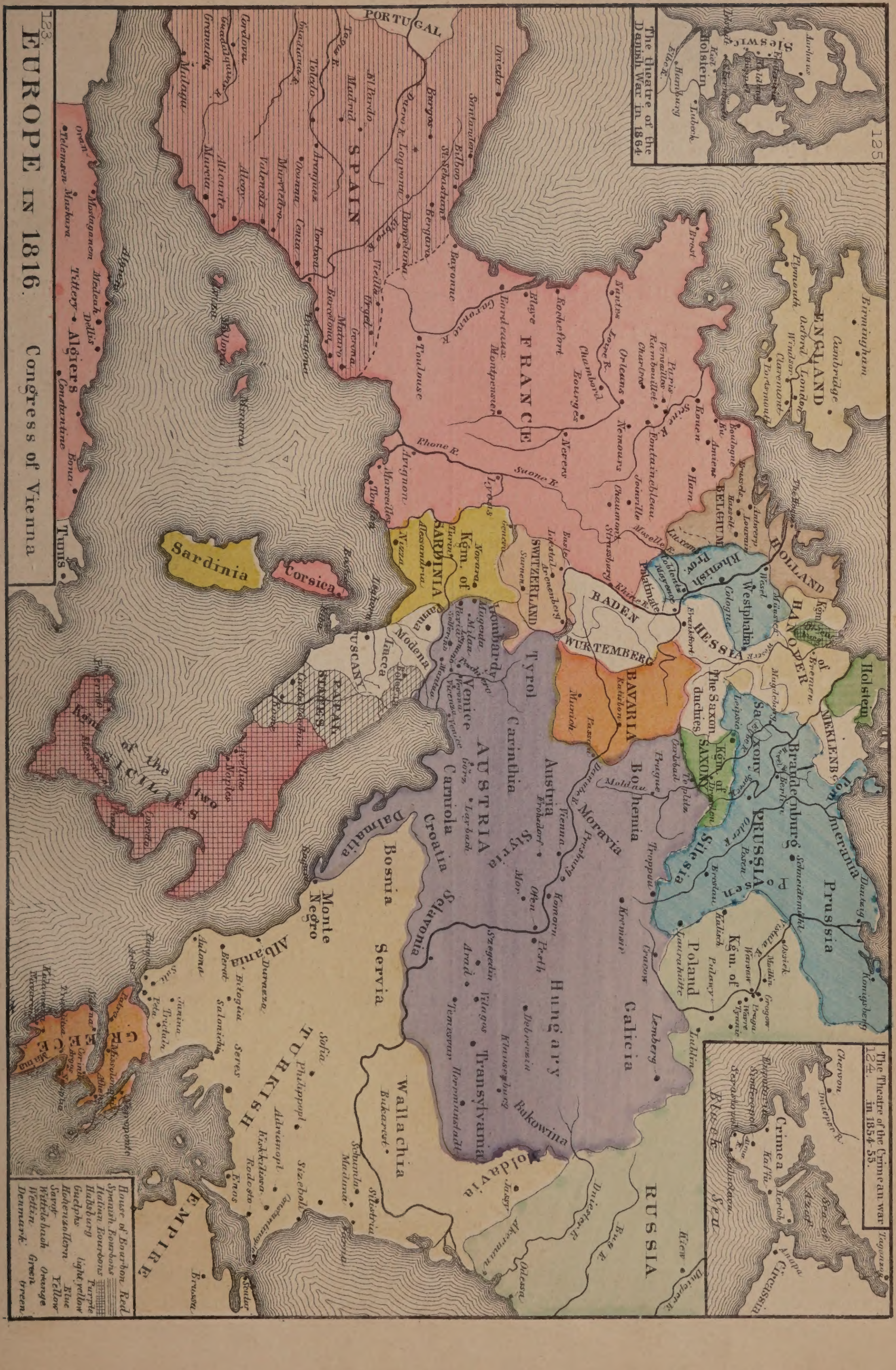
Legal process, both civil and criminal, was brought within the comprehension of ordinary citizens and submitted to the test of publicity. The price which was paid for all this, was the suppression of every vestige of liberty, the conscription and the continental blockade, the real political importance of which lay in the hostility which it excited between France and Russia.

Alexander, who had attached himself to Napoleon's commercial system in 1807, withdrew from it in 1810, when the harbors of Russia were opened to all ships bearing a neutral flag and a duty was imposed upon many of the products of France. It was scarcely less than a direct challenge to Napoleon, who imagined that the command of the European coast line would enable him to exhaust his bitter enemy, England; and he was prepared to risk a war with Russia rather than permit it to frustrate his long-cherished hopes. In the spring of 1811, Napoleon had determined upon war. On June 24, 1812, he crossed the Niemen with an army of nearly 600,000 men. The Russians retreated before him so as to lure him into the heart of the country, until they reached the plain between Smolensko and Moscow, on which, September 7th, the battle of Borodino was fought. The Russians retired upon Moscow, closely followed by Napoleon, who, on the morning of the 14th, first beheld its minarets and cupolas. The cry of "Moscow! Moscow!" burst from the ranks as the army entered the famous city—but found it a city of the dead, for its three hundred thousand inhabitants had left with the Russian troops, after making preparations for burning it to the ground. Scarcely three days had passed before fire burst out in all directions. They had to retreat under unparalleled hardships.

Among the most horrible incidents was the passage of the Beresina (November 27th), with the Russians in pursuit.

In Poland, Napoleon received news of a conspiracy at home; he hastened to Paris. His presence, the frankness with which he told the tale of the unparalleled sufferings and heroic endurance of his army, restored in a measure his waning popularity. His first act was to raise a new army, for the disastrous campaign was turning his allies into enemies. Soon he found himself opposed by a united Europe. The final struggle took place at Leipsic (October 18, 1813). Napoleon was beaten and forced to fall back across the Rhine. He was soon followed by the allies. On the last day of 1813 they crossed the Rhine. For two months more Napoleon maintained a wonderful struggle with a handful of raw conscripts against their overwhelming numbers. It closed (March 31st) with the surrender of Paris; and the submission of the capital was at once followed by the abdication of the Emperor (April 6th) and the return of the Bourbons. Napoleon was banished, with the empty title of Emperor, to Elba (May 4, 1814).

Within nine months, however, he returned to France, landing on the coast near Cannes. After twenty days he was again installed in the Tuileries. Then followed the *reign of a hundred days.* Napoleon found his position one of extreme peril and difficulty. He granted liberal institutions to France and endeavored once more to reorganize the army. He resolved to anticipate the movements of the Allies by concentrating his troops in Belgium, and destroying the English and Prussian armies before the Austrians and Russians had time to come up. He crossed the frontier on June 14th, and wrested Ligny from the Prussians on the 16th, while Wellington prevented Ney from gaining the position of Quatre Bras, and on the 17th established himself near the village of Waterloo, for the purpose of covering Brussels. On the following day was fought the battle of Waterloo, where the great emperor was finally defeated. Once more he resigned his crown (June 22d), and then surrendered himself to the British Government. He was conveyed on board a British frigate to the island of St. Helena, where he passed the remainder of his days and died at the age of fifty-two, on May 5, 1821.



123. EUROPE in 1816. Congress of Vienna

125 The theatre of the Danish War in 1864

124. The Theatre of the Crimean war in 1854-55.

EUROPE FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS TO THE PEACE OF PRAGUE.

The league of the older monarchies had proved stronger in the end than the genius and the ambition of a single man. The overthrow of Napoleon placed the supreme power in Europe in the hands of a *Pentarchy of the Great Powers*, consisting of the five powers which had concluded the Peace of Paris, and which, to avoid quarrels about rank, were henceforward named in the order of the French alphabet—Autriche, France, Grande-Bretagne, Prusse, Russie. For special cases this union was joined by Spain, Portugal, and Sweden.

These *eight* powers, after long negotiations, finally signed the *Act of the Congress of Vienna*, in which the Napoleonic booty was divided among the conquerors. Austria received, besides her ancient domain of Milan, Venice, as a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Genoa was given to Sardinia, which thus laid the foundation of her future greatness. The Papal Government was re-established in the States of the Church. Naples and Sicily were restored to their Bourbon rulers, and Tuscany became again a grand-duchy.

Austria received, also, besides the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the Illyrian provinces (the old dominion of Venice), and Salzburg and Tyrol, taken from Bavaria. The true ruler of this Austrian empire, which stretched over Slavonic, German, and Italian lands, was Prince Metternich. Not content to rule this motley empire, he wished to make Germany and Italy his prefectures, to treat the upward-striving Prussia as his vassal, and to take the lead everywhere. For that reason he prevented the re-establishment of the German empire, but brought about a German confederation (see Map 127), with a Diet to be held at Frankfort, of which the Austrian emperor was to be president. The greater and smaller German states, to the number of thirty-eight, were to be members of the confederation, which had all the defects of the empire, without the prestige of its traditions.

The restoration of the Prussian kingdom occasioned long and violent debates, principally on account of Russia claiming the Duchy of Warsaw (compare Maps xliv. and xlv.), which contained the Polish land acquired by Prussia in the third partition. Prussia demanded in compensation the whole of Saxony, and was supported by Russia, while she was opposed by Austria, France, and England. It was finally settled by giving Posen back to Prussia, which was further compensated with about a third part of Saxony, and the Rhenish provinces.

On the whole, Russia was the greatest gainer by this new adjustment of European boundaries, as besides the Duchy of Warsaw, by which she thrusted herself into the middle of Europe, she obtained Finland in the north, and Bessarabia and part of Moldavia in the south. The France of the restored Bourbons was the France of the elder Bourbons (the boundaries of 1790), enlarged by those small isolated scraps of foreign soil which were needed to make it continuous. With the view of coercing France on the north, Belgium and the Dutch provinces were erected into the kingdom of the Netherlands. The union lasted only till 1830, when Belgium revolted and became an independent kingdom, under Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. This Belgian revolution was really one of the consequences of the French July revolution.

Louis XVIII. died in 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles X. He and his minister, Polignac, attempted *to suspend the liberty of the press, to dissolve the Chambers,* and *to set aside the charter*. The three *ordonnances* which should bring this about were signed July 25th. On the 27th, the police seized the newspapers and destroyed the printing presses, and on Wednesday, July 28th, barricades arose in Paris. The king abdicated rather than make concessions, and the Duke of Orleans became the "citizen king," Louis Philippe. His insincerity exasperated the French, and in February, 1848, a disturbance broke out which soon grew into a revolution, and ended in the citizen king's abdication and the proclamation of a republic.

The French revolution of 1848 shook every throne on the Continent. It was in general the greatest states which suffered most severely from it. But Russia remained unaffected. Nicholas, who had succeeded his brother, Alexander I., in 1825, looked upon himself as the autocrat of Europe. He thought the time had come to seize the "*key to the Russian house*," Constantinople. But France, where Louis Napoleon had, since 1852, seated himself on the imperial throne, and England combined to protect Turkey.

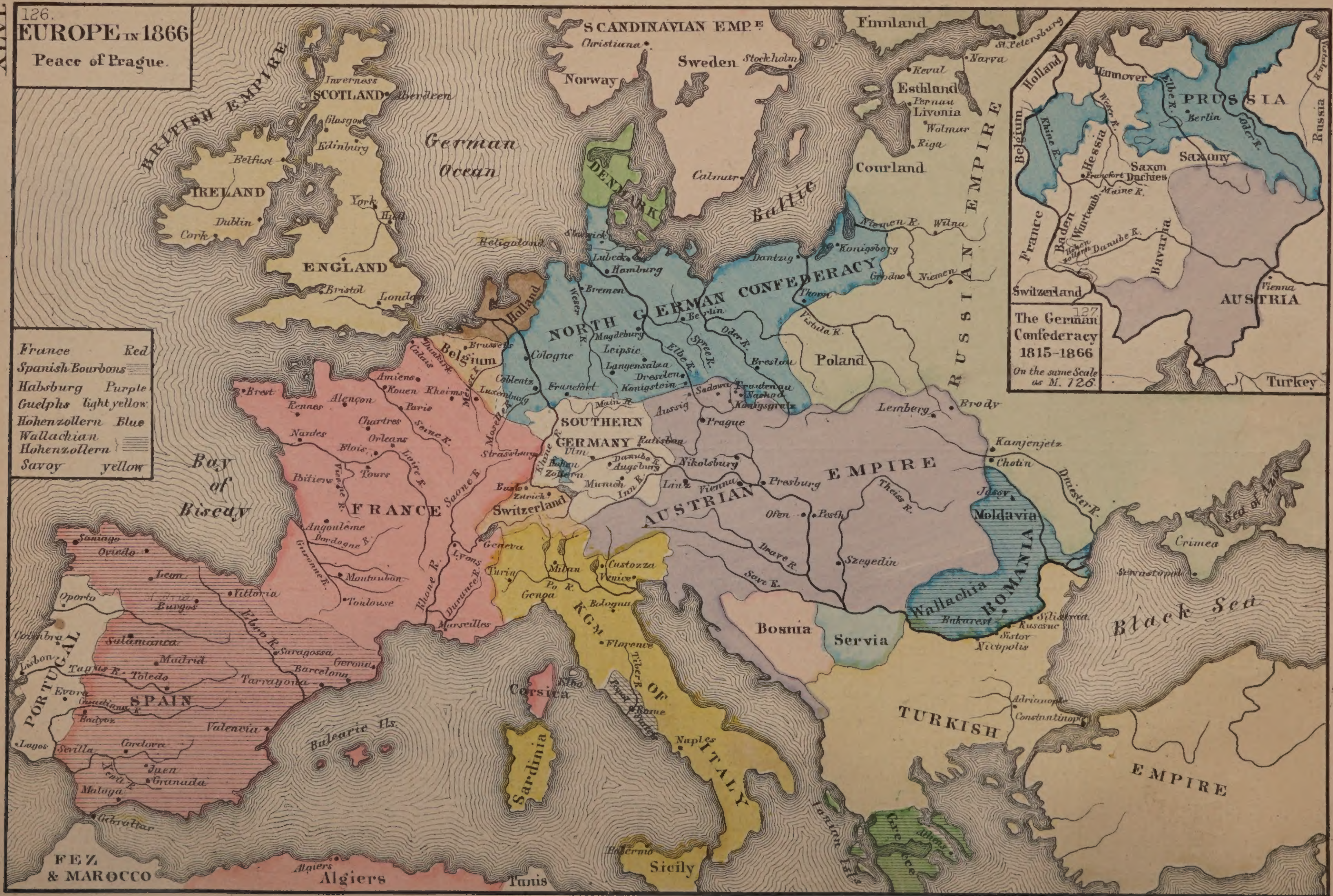
The war soon concentrated itself in the Crimea (September, 1854), and lasted till March, 1856, when the strength of Russia was so much impaired that she was glad to conclude a peace which banished her fleets from the Black Sea. The great result of this Crimean War was that Russia had lost that commanding position which made her master of Germany, and had lost it through the treachery of Austria. Out of revenge, she encouraged the Sardinian plans for driving the Austrians out of Italy. Cavour had put Napoleon under obligations by his co-operation in the Crimea, and now wanted a French alliance to free his country from the Austrians. The help was given, and a Franco-Sardinian army drove the Austrians across the Mincio (July, 1859). Lombardy was added to Sardinia. In the next year, Central and Southern Italy drove out their dynasts, and united with the kingdom of Victor Emanuel.

In 1866, a war broke out between Prussia and Austria, about the possession of Schleswig-Holstein, and an alliance was made between Prussia and Italy, in accordance with which war was declared between Italy and Austria. The Italian army crossed the Mincio, but was defeated at Custozza (June 24th). The war, however, was decided by the great Prussian victory of Königgrätz (July 3d). Austria was no longer able to hold Venice, and gave it up to Napoleon, who handed it over to Italy (November 7th). This cession united the whole of Italy, with the exception of the district around Rome. This battle of Königgrätz raised Prussia to the first rank among the European powers. By the *Peace of Prague* (August 23, 1866), Austria was excluded from the German confederation, and must consent to the formation of the *North German Confederacy*.

126.

EUROPE IN 1866

Peace of Prague.



CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR.

France had been violently excited by the Prussian success, the tremendous consequences of which were unfolding themselves before her eyes. There was no denying the fact that the Prussians had displayed all the best characteristics of a great military power. And the French army was in no condition to take the field, in case the friendly relations which then existed should be interrupted. Even before the preliminaries of peace were settled, France gave Prussia to understand that she would have to be compensated for the political changes to which these successes must give rise, and early in August, 1866, the French ambassador at Berlin formally demanded the cession of the *left bank of the Rhine.* Prussia sternly refused, and Napoleon was in no condition to press his claim.

In July, 1870, General Prim offered the crown of Spain to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a distant relation of the King of Prussia. Napoleon, anxious for an opportunity to strengthen his waning popularity, resolved to object to Leopold's candidature. But he was resolved to avoid war. For, although assured by his marshals that all was ready for war, one thing troubled him. If a war had to be waged there was no man capable of directing it. When he saw that, in spite of himself, he was slowly drifting into war, he tried to avert it by submitting the question to a Congress of the Great Powers.

On the same day on which this resolution was taken, Napoleon's attention was called to the famous article inserted in the German newspapers, in which it was stated that the King of Prussia had dismissed Benedetti, telling him that he had nothing further to add. Bismarck had circulated this statement, in order to compromise everything, to force the hand of France, and to bring on war. And he attained his object.

Deputies and Senators vied with each other in expressing most forcibly the necessity for replying to this insolence by a declaration of war. The empress seconded this warmly, and under such impulses Napoleon made a proclamation (July 19, 1870), in which he said, "that Prussia, launched on the path of invasion, had aroused defiance everywhere, necessitated exaggerated armaments, and turned Europe into a camp where nothing but uncertainty reigned."

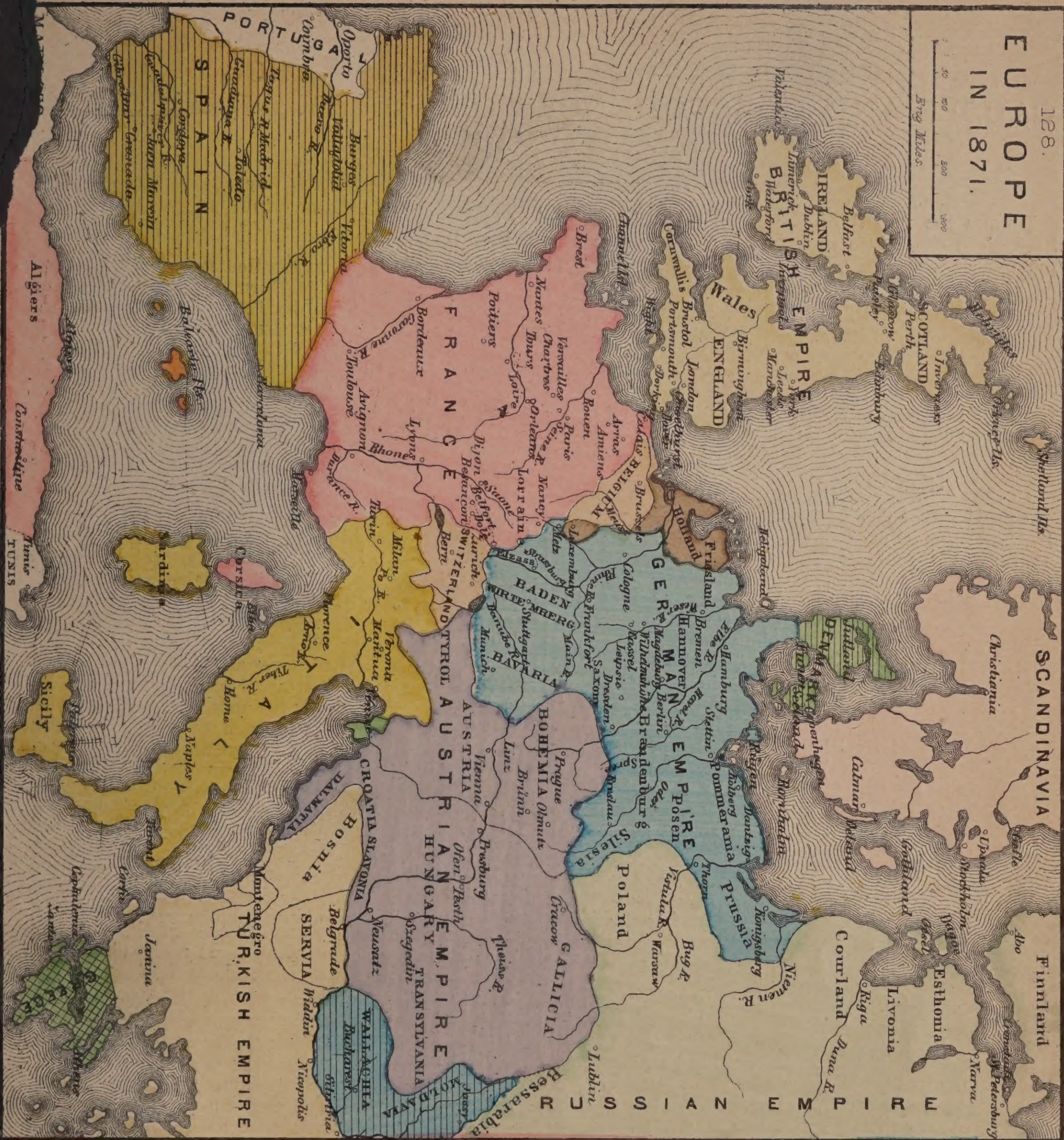
Napoleon had hoped that the South Germans, if they did not actually join France, would at least remain neutral. But, on July 20th, the South German princes formally announced to the King of Prussia that their forces were at his disposal. The Prussian Crown Prince at once left Berlin to take the command of the Southern armies. When the Germans received the French declaration of war, they were ready for action. Their army numbered nearly a million, for whom everything, to the minutest particular, had been provided. The French were not ready (Napoleon having been deceived by his marshals), besides being inferior in numbers (350,000 at the utmost), and inferior as regards commanders possessing the requisite foresight and strategical knowledge.

Marshal MacMahon, recalled from Africa to lead the first army corps into Germany, was badly beaten by the Crown Prince at *Weissenburg* (August 4th), and at *Wörth* (August 6th). The whole German army entered France, and on August 14th the Prussians occupied Nancy. The greater part of the French army was concentrated at Metz under Bazaine; when he made an attempt to join MacMahon (who had retreated to the camp at Chalons), he was defeated at *Gravelotte* (August 18th), and forced to take refuge in Metz. MacMahon, trying to join Bazaine in Metz, was driven toward *Sedan,* into which the French were driven from all sides. The iron ring of the German army surrounded the doomed town. Napoleon, in order to prevent a useless effusion of blood, surrendered with 84,000 men (September 2d). Paris went nearly mad with rage and disappointment when it heard the news. The emperor was deposed. A provisional government was formed, which opened negotiations for peace. These, however, came to nothing, in consequence of a declaration of Jules Favre that not a stone of the French fortresses nor an inch of French territory should be ceded. The Prussians continued to advance, and Paris was soon encircled by them. The siege lasted one hundred and thirty-one days. The city was forced to surrender on January 28, 1871. At the same time a general armistice was agreed upon. This was followed by a treaty of peace (February 26, 1871), under which the French gave up Alsace and Lorraine, consented to dismantle several fortresses, and to pay the enormous indemnity of $1,000,000,000 (five milliards of francs).

One of the results of the German victories over France was the *re-establishment of the German Empire.* The national feeling engendered on the battlefields, in the midst of common dangers and common hopes, gave rise to a desire for a closer union between the North and South of Germany. About the middle of October, 1870, plenipotentiaries were sent from all the Southern States to Versailles for the purpose of bringing about a closer union. This resulted in changing the Northern Confederacy into a German Confederacy. King Louis II. of Bavaria proposed that the President of the German Confederacy should receive the title of *German Emperor.* Accordingly, on January 18, 1871, King William of Prussia, in the *hall of mirrors,* in the palace of Versailles, was solemnly proclaimed Emperor.

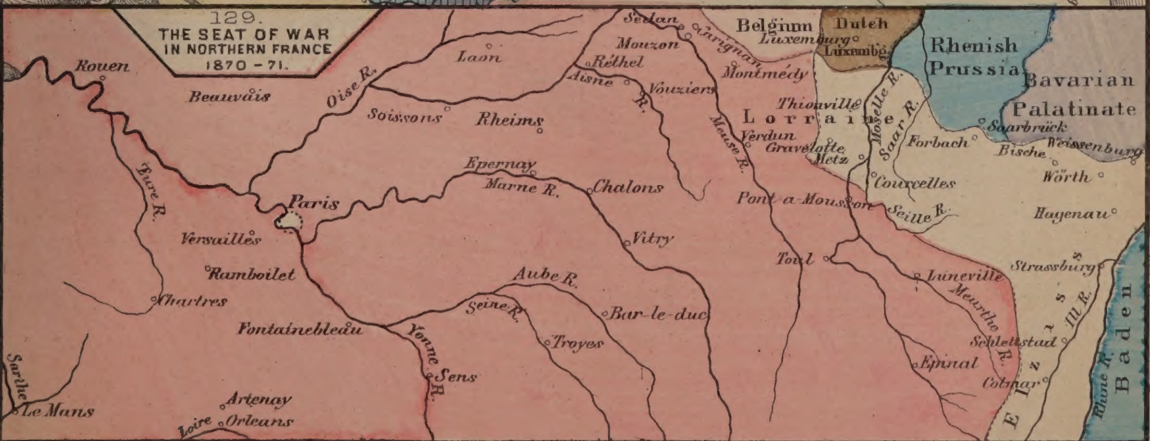
Another result of the war was the incorporation of the Papal States with Italy. Rome became the capital of United Italy (October 9, 1870). The son of the Italian monarch, Victor Emanuel, was (November, 1870) chosen King of Spain (Amadeo I.), which he only occupied until February 11, 1873.

Note.—*Hence Spain has the same color as Italy, but is lined.*



128.

EUROPE IN 1871.



129.

THE SEAT OF WAR IN NORTHERN FRANCE 1870-71.

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1878.

DURING the period of the great migrations the Slavonians came into the Balkan Peninsula in all manner of characters, as captives, as mercenaries, as allies, and finally as conquerors. One of the oldest Slavonic migrations settled about 450 A. D. in depopulated Mœsia, the tract between the Danube and the Balkan. They called themselves Slovieni, and their country Slovienia. In 679 they were conquered by the small but warlike *Finnic* tribe of the Bulgarians. They were soon absorbed by their Slavonic subjects, who retained the name of their conquerors—Bulgarians. Since 1396 they have been subject to the Turks.

In the beginning of the seventh century the northern provinces of the Byzantine Empire were overrun by the Tartar tribe of the Avars. To root out this swarm and repeople the land, the emperor, Heraclius, invited into his dominions certain Slavonic tribes, the Serbians. They settled directly west of the Bulgarians, and gave the name of Serbia to their new home, which extended from the river *Timok*, in the east, to the Adriatic, at *Antivari*, in the west. The Turks conquered it in 1389. But in 1829 it recovered partially its independence, and from 1867 it simply acknowledged the Turkish overlordship. The Serbians who settled in the valley of the *Bosna* (an affluent of the Save) called themselves Bosnians, and their home Bosnia. Originally a part of the Serbian state, it became independent after the dissolution of the Serbian empire, in 1355. Since 1401 it has been a Turkish vassal state. At that time Bosnia was the only Slavonic part of the Turkish empire possessing a native nobility who owned the land, and a peasantry who tilled it for them. The existence of this chivalrous and warlike class at first strengthened resistance, but when defeat was an accomplished fact, riveted the bonds of the conquered. While the peasantry, with nothing to lose, remained Christians, the nobility, to a man, became Mohammedans, to save their patrimony. Thus, the Christian nobles of Bosnia became *Turkish beys.* But the tyranny and pretensions of the beys waxed too great. It became necessary to subdue them as rebels. This was accomplished by Omar Pasha, who, in 1850–51, put an end to the feudal system in Bosnia. They lost their rank as feudal chiefs, and were compelled to pay into the government treasury the tithes received by them from the Christian population, but hitherto retained by themselves.

The *Herzegovina* (*i.e.*, the Duke's County) forms the south-western district of Bosnia. In August, 1875, the turbulence and armed strife which for centuries have been chronic in the Herzegovina broke out into unusual violence, and were soon accompanied by open insurrection against the sultan. Neither the arms nor the promises of the Turks could overcome them, for the sultan had other enemies to fight than a handful of ragged mountaineers. He had to contend with a combination of geographical and political circumstances equally militating against him. For Bosnia and the Herzegovina are almost entirely surrounded by foreign territories. To the north and west they border upon Austrian soil; on the east they are flanked by Serbia, while half the southern frontier is hemmed in by the towering ridges of Montenegro. Only in the extreme southeast can the province be entered from Turkey proper, and here only through a narrow pass—the defile of *Novi Basar*—and this pass was in the possession of the rebels, with whom Serbia and Montenegro warmly sympathized. Thousands of Serbian and Montenegrine volunteers joined the insurgents, with the connivance, if not with the direct assistance, of their governments. Were not the sultan under the tutelage of the powers he would have resented these proceedings; as it was, he only applied to the powers for permission to ward off his enemies, and failing to obtain the permission asked for, submitted to an attack he was not at liberty to repel.

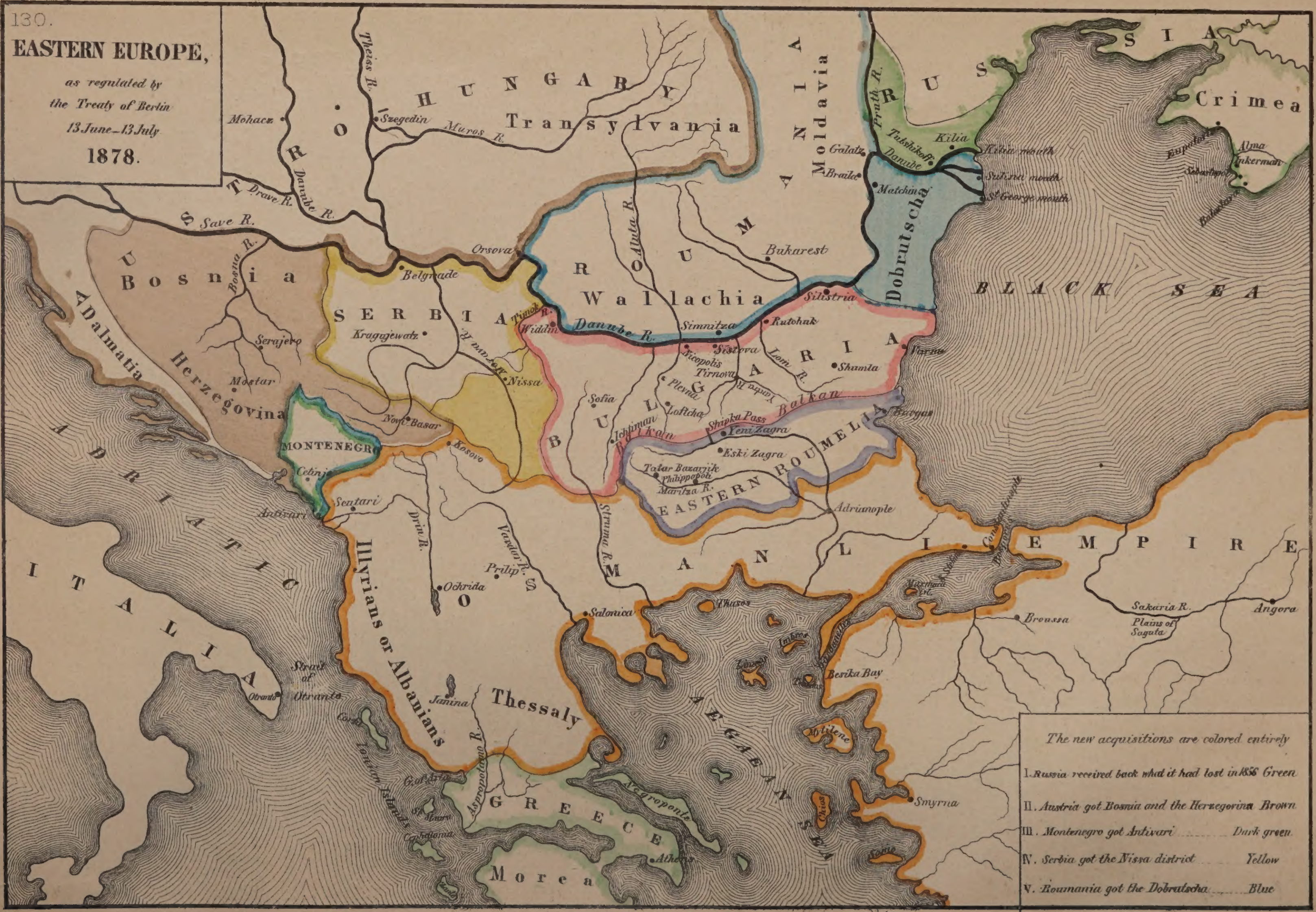
This war had gone on for nearly a year, when an attempt at a rising took place in Bulgaria (May, 1876). The Turks had planted here colonies of savage Circassians, who were allowed to commit any kind of outrage against their Christian neighbors. When the Bulgarians saw the success of their brethren to the northwest, they rose against their Circassian oppressors. But the Bulgarian revolt was feeble, compared with the uprising in the Herzegovina, and consequently easily put down by the Turkish Government; but it was done by the employment of irregular troops, who committed cruelties and outrages the report of which filled Christendom with horror, and did more harm to the sultan than could have been produced by any reverses in the field, or by the loss of whole provinces. It made especially a deep impression in England, where the fury against the Turk was intensified by an official announcement of the Turkish Government that the July (1876) interest due to the public creditors of Turkey, could not be provided, and that payments in respect of the national debt must cease while the state troubles continued.

A few months before a *Note* had been drawn up by the Austro-Hungarian minister, Andrassy, on behalf of Austria, Germany, and Russia. Five points were insisted on as essential to the pacification of Bosnia and Herzegovina—unlimited religious freedom; abolition of the system of farming the taxes; the application of the direct revenue of Bosnia and Herzegovina for the benefit of those provinces; establishment of a special commission, consisting, in equal parts, of Moslems and Christians, to watch over the execution of the reforms; and improvement of the industrial condition of the country population. When the *Note* was presented to Lord Derby, he indorsed it, but not without important reserves. He agreed that the position of the Turkish provinces might be improved, but that *the integrity of the Ottoman empire was to be respected.*

130.

EASTERN EUROPE,

as regulated by
the Treaty of Berlin
13 June–13 July
1878.



The new acquisitions are colored entirely

I. Russia received back what it had lost in 1856	Green
II. Austria got Bosnia and the Herzegovina	Brown
III. Montenegro got Antivari	Dark green
IV. Serbia got the Nissa district	Yellow
V. Roumania got the Dobrutscha	Blue

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1878 (Continued).

TREATY OF BERLIN.

The *Note* being presented to the sultan, he at once promised reforms and amnesty to the insurgents. But the rebels did not trust his promises, and the revolt continued. Austria, Germany, and Russia then drew up the *Berlin Memorandum*, in which the sultan was asked to grant an armistice for two months, so that the demands of the insurgents might receive fair consideration. To this France and Italy adhered. But England, perceiving the integrity of the Osmanli empire to be in danger, not only refused to affix her signature to the *Memorandum*, but despatched a powerful squadron to Besika Bay, naturally expecting that the sultan would indorse her disapproval of the Berlin Memorandum. But the sultan, fearing the Russians, declared his willingness to accept it. This declaration put an end to his existence. He was deposed, and, conforming to the time-honored usages of his race, made an end to his miserable existence (June 4, 1876).

His nephew, Murad V., was proclaimed in his stead, but proving hopelessly imbecile, his brother, Abdul-Hamid II., was raised to the Ottoman throne (August 31st).

General Ignatieff, the Russian Ambassador, all-powerful during the reign of Abdul-Aziz, lost all his influence. The prestige of Russia seemed to be gone—that of England was in the ascendant. The new sultan, at the advice of England, proclaimed a six weeks' truce to give the insurgents time to return to their allegiance, which they, however, declined. Serbia was now asked what she meant by lining her frontier with troops. The Serbian prince, Milan, wishing to gain time, gave an evasive reply. In the meanwhile, the Serbian army was largely recruited by Russian soldiers, and chiefly officered by Russians, who took those commands with the sanction of their government. When all was ready (June 26th), Prince Nicholas of Montenegro was declared Prince of the Herzegovina, and Bosnia proclaimed its union with Serbia. In the war that ensued the Turks were almost uniformly successful, and were only checked from a victorious advance on the Serbian capital by the peremptory interposition of Russia. By the peace of March 2, 1877, Serbia agreed to prevent invasions of Turkish territory by armed bands, to keep the Serbian fortresses in good repair, and hoist the Turkish flag on them jointly with that of Serbia.

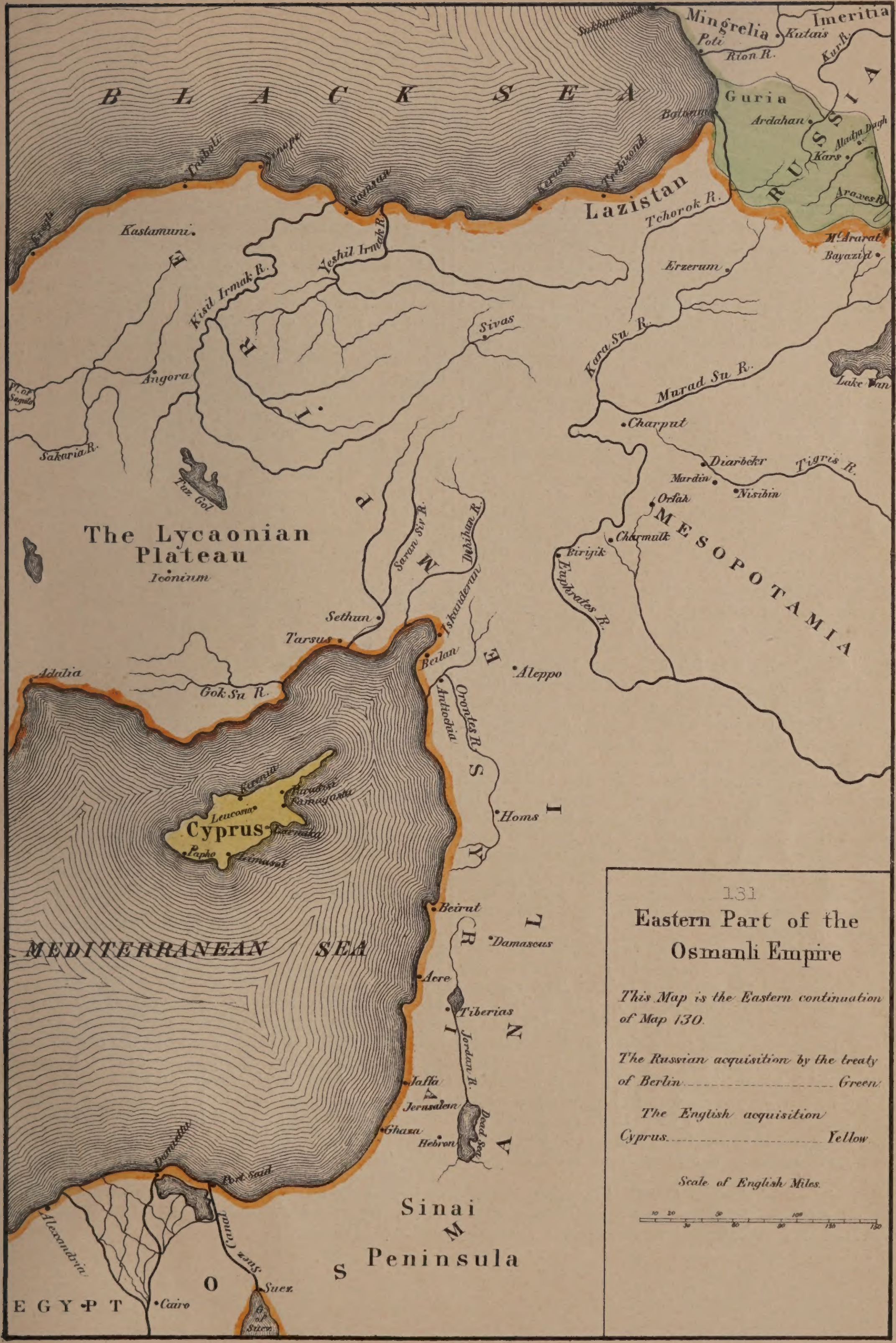
In the midst of this war (November, 1876) Alexander II. of Russia made a public declaration that if Turkey did not give due guarantees for the better government of its Christian subjects he would force them, either in concert with his allies or by independent action. To preserve the peace, a *Conference of the Great Powers* was held in Constantinople (December, 1876), which urged on the sultan the adoption of a plan of internal reform substantially the same as that contained in the Andrassy note. The sultan, relying on Lord Derby's assurances, paid not the least attention to it. The Conference finally drew up a protocol (March 31, 1877), recording the conclusion at which they had arrived about Turkey, which contained a vague threat that if the sultan did not put his affairs in order something would be done to compel him.

Russia declared, on her own responsibility, that if reform should not be carried out within a brief period, she would herself see to it.

The Turks seemed at first frightened into compliance, but after Lord Derby again had assured them that *so far as England was concerned there should be no coercion*, they committed the immense folly of going to war. The Russians crossed successfully the Pruth (April, 1877) and the Danube, and notwithstanding the heroic defence of Plevna by Osman Pasha, they entered, January 21, 1878, Adrianople. The Turks now sued for an armistice. But the Russians did not stop their march until they were before Constantinople. Then (January 31st) an armistice was concluded, which was followed on March 3d by the preliminary treaty of San Stefano. The objections to this treaty were formulated by Lord Salisbury in an elaborate despatch, which opened the negotiations relative to the submission of the treaty to a European Congress. Russia was not only willing to hold a congress, but declared that the questions affecting European interests would be debated and settled with the European powers, but that she reserved to herself the liberty of accepting or not accepting the discussion. The Congress was finally opened by Prince Bismarck, at Berlin (June 13, 1878). The result of its deliberations was the Treaty of Berlin, by which the affairs of Eastern Europe were regulated as follows:

The sultan lost the tribute of Servia and Roumania, both of which were declared independent. His old enemy, Montenegro, whose independence he never had acknowledged, obtained an accession of territory and access to the sea. Bulgaria should form a self-governing tributary principality, under the suzerainty of the sultan, with a prince chosen by the free vote of the population and confirmed by the Porte, with the consent of the great powers.

Austria was charged with the occupation and administration of Bosnia and the Herzegovina. Roumelia was endowed with an *autonomy* created and guaranteed by the powers, which destroys the sultan's legislative control over it and reduces his sovereignty to a mere name. Finally, the sultan was obliged to cede the island of Cyprus to England. In Asia, Kars, Ardahan, and Batoum were ceded to Russia, the district of Khotur to Persia, and the sultan pledged himself to carry out the requisite reforms in Armenia without loss of time, and to protect the inhabitants against the Kurds and Circassians. In fact, Turkey in Europe has virtually ceased to exist, and faith in the permanence of the Asiatic Empire has been completely destroyed.



131

Eastern Part of the Osmanli Empire

This Map is the Eastern continuation of Map 130.

The Russian acquisition by the treaty of Berlin............ Green

The English acquisition Cyprus............ Yellow

Scale of English Miles.

THE ANGLO-INDIAN EMPIRE.

In 1599 an East India Company was founded in London. The trade, profitable as it was, remained small in extent, and the three early factories of the company (Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta) were only gradually acquired during the seventeenth century.

These settlements had but little territory attached to them, and often trembled for their own safety. The genius and courage of Clive converted these traders into rulers of a large and magnificent empire. With his victory at Plassey (June 23, 1757) began the ascendancy of England in the East. The victory of Wandewash (1760) established the British supremacy over Southern India. Clive felt that whilst the English exercised sovereign powers, it was necessary to conceal that sovereignty from the eyes of the world, as it would only excite the murmurs of the English Parliament and provoke the jealousies of French and Dutch rivals. Accordingly Clive planned that the English were to act solely under the form of being the officers of the Great Moghul, who was made to confer on the English the *Diwáni* (*i.e.*, the right of collecting the revenue—really involving the whole sovereignty) of Bengal, Bihár, and Orissa, in return for a yearly payment of $1,250,000. Though the English had long virtually possessed all the power thus given to them, the imperial grant of the *Diwáni* was valuable, as constituting them the legal (as well as the actual) sovereigns of the country. This happened on August 12, 1765.

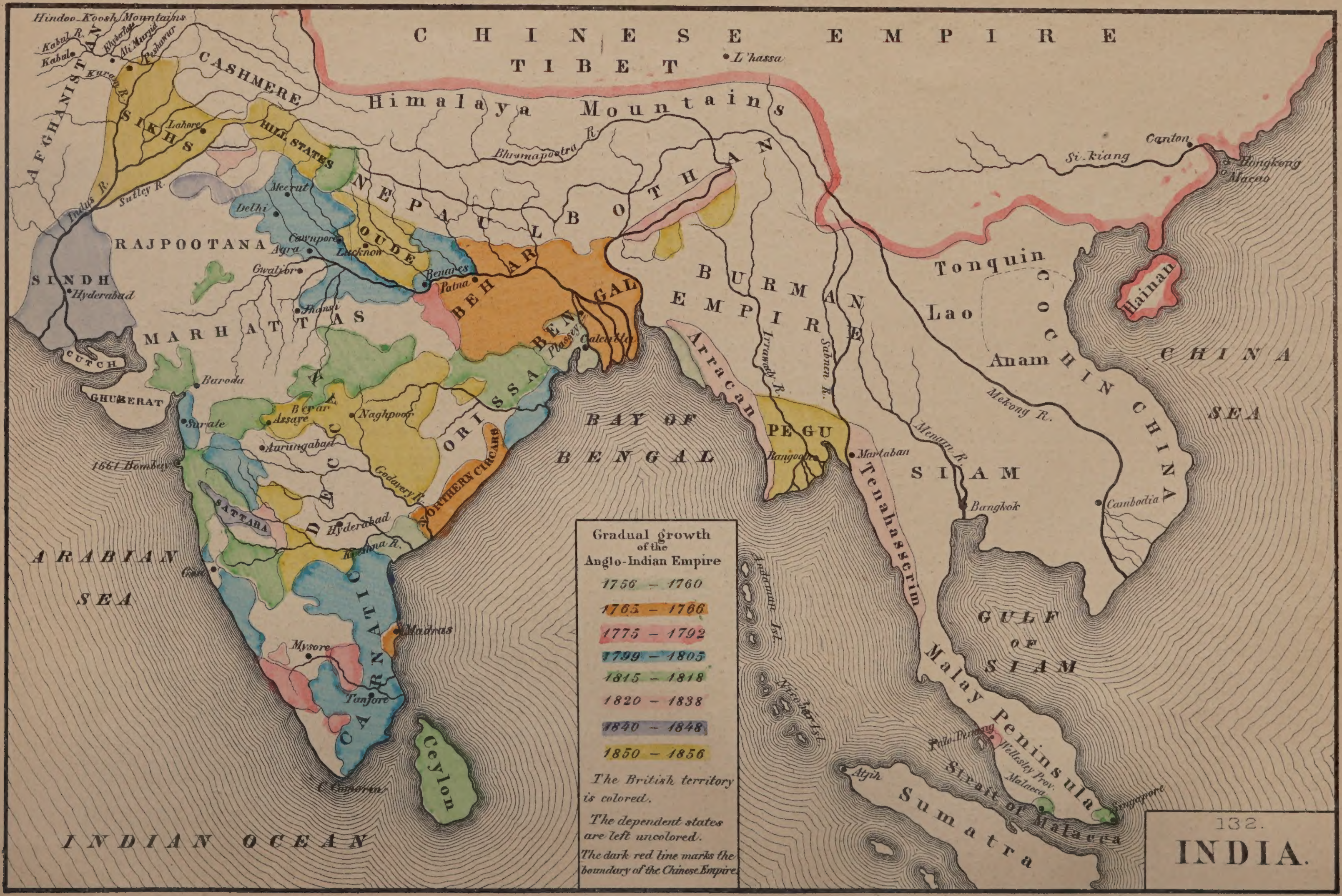
The merchants-clerks of the East India Company, who had been gradually lifted into the rulers of a vast empire, did not understand the responsibilities of power. Greed, oppression, and false dealing marked their rule, and in 1773 the English Government was forced to interfere. The Regulation Act was passed by Parliament, by which the three presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bengal were gathered under a Governor-general and a Supreme Court of Judicature.

The first Governor-general was the celebrated Warren Hastings, who began in a systematic way the subjection of the whole of India. The annexation of Benares; the extension of the British dominion along the Ganges; the reduction of Oude to virtual dependence, and the defeat of the Mahrattas and of Hyder Ali, laid the foundation of an Indian empire which his genius was bold enough to foresee. He had been vigorous enough to impress the native mind, and just enough to earn their good-will, and when he returned to England, in 1784, he left behind him a great name as a strong ruler both in peace and war.

The victory at Assaye (1803), in which General Wellesley (afterward Lord Wellington) broke up the power of the Mahrattas, made British authority supreme through the whole extent of India. The territory in India, under control of the East India Company, had now become so large that the British Government could no longer leave it, uncontrolled, in the hands of a company of traders. At the expiration of their charter, in 1813, their monopoly of trade was taken away, and their power over the natives was greatly curtailed. The Earl of Moira was sent to carry out the provisions of the new charter. He was the first to discern that the British frontiers in India could never be secure till the *natural* frontier was reached, that of the *Himalaya* and *the sea*. His successors followed in his footsteps, especially Lord Dalhousie (1848–1856), who carried out the policy of annexation with a determined hand. Sattara, in 1848; Berar, in 1853; Jhansi and Nagpore, in 1854; and, greatest of all, Oude, in 1856, were the trophies of his administrative talents. Moslems and Hindoos having come in fierce collision, a body of British troops marched to Lucknow, deposed its monarch, and completed the work of annexation.

The whole of the Indian peninsula, from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya Mountains and the Indies, was now subject to England, and the British rule seemed too firmly established to be shaken. But the resentment at the annexation of Oude was greater than the English imagined. When to this was added a firm belief on the part of the Hindoos, that the English Government had resolved to make them Christians, by forcing them to lose their cast, a terrible mutiny broke out (May, 1857—May, 1858), the object of which was the expulsion of the English from India. After it was trampled out with much difficulty, by Sir Henry Havelock and Sir Colin Campbell, the government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the crown. On the 1st of November, 1858, Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, and the Governor-general became her Viceroy.

Thus England succeeded to the inheritance of the Great Moghuls, who, however, held, in addition to India, Afghanistan as a province of their empire; for they never lost sight of the fact that the master of the upper plateau of Afghanistan, commanding access from the passes of the north, is in fact the master of India, and that, owing to the great number of passes, the point of attack is always uncertain. They knew also that it never had been found possible to arrest the progress of the invader before he crossed the Indus, and that if the Indus was crossed, and India had to fight the battle on her own plains, it invariably lost it. If England wants to keep her Anglo-Indian Empire, she ought to pursue the same policy as the Moghuls, to take possession of Afghanistan, the true *Northwestern Gate of India*, of which the key is HERAT.


Hindoo Koosh Mountains
Kabul R.
Kabul
Khyber Pass
Ali Musjid
Peshawur
Kuram R.
AFGHANISTAN
CASHMERE
SIKHS
Lahore
HILL STATES
Indus R.
Sutley R.
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
L'hassa
Himalaya Mountains
Bhramapootra R.
NEPAUL
BOTHAN
Meerut
Delhi
Cawnpore
Agra
Lucknow
OUDE
RAJPOOTANA
Gwalior
SINDH
Hyderabad
Jhansi
MARHATTAS
Benares
Patna
BEHAR
BENGAL
Plassey
Calcutta
CUTCH
Baroda
GHUZERAT
Surate
Berar
Assaye
Naghpoor
Aurungabad
ORISSA
NORTHERN CIRCARS
Godavery R.
1661 Bombay
DECCAN
SATTARA
Hyderabad
Kistna R.
ARABIAN SEA
Goa
CARNATIC
Madras
Mysore
Tanjore
C. Comorin
Ceylon
INDIAN OCEAN
BAY OF BENGAL
BURMAN EMPIRE
Arracan
Irrawady R.
Saluen R.
PEGU
Rangoon
Martaban
Tenahasserim
Andaman Isl.
Nicobar Isl.
SIAM
Menam R.
Bangkok
Tonquin
Lao
Anam
COCHIN CHINA
Mekong R.
Cambodia
Hainan
Canton
Si-kiang
Hongkong
Macao
CHINA SEA
GULF OF SIAM
Malay Peninsula
Pulo Penang
Wellesley Prov.
Malacca
Singapore
Strait of Malacca
Atjeh
Sumatra
Gradual growth of the Anglo-Indian Empire
1756 – 1760
1765 – 1766
1775 – 1792
1799 – 1805
1815 – 1818
1820 – 1838
1840 – 1848
1850 – 1856
The British territory is colored.
The dependent states are left uncolored.
The dark red line marks the boundary of the Chinese Empire.

132.

INDIA.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

The Portuguese were the first among the European nations who became acquainted with the eastern coast of the present United States. Since the very beginning of the sixteenth century they had sailed along the whole coast from *Florida* to *Cape Cod*, and had carefully mapped it out. But the rivalry of Spain and Portugal led to secrecy regarding all discoveries. Discarding the rough shores themselves, they were nevertheless unwilling to let others reap the fruit of their discoveries.

About the same time that the Portuguese explored the coast from south to north, John Cabot explored it from north to south. He was a Venetian captain, living in England, who sailed, 1497, out of Bristol in search of a northwest passage to India. He came upon the coast of North America near *Cape Breton*, and followed it south and westward for nine hundred miles. But the English paid little heed to his discoveries.

Hardy fishermen from France were the next to touch our coast. The fishing grounds near Europe becoming gradually exhausted they ventured each year farther westward, until at last they came to the coasts of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia; but they troubled themselves very little about the land near by. A few captains explored the coast a little. *Cape Breton* owes its name to the fishermen of Brittany. John Denys is said to have explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence as early as 1506.

A little latter (1512) the Spanish governor of Porto Rico, Ponce de Leon, touched our coast. It happened to be Easter Sunday (*Pascua Florida, i.e.,* Flowery Easter), and so he named the country *Florida.*

Twelve years later (1524), Verrazano, an Italian sailor, was sent out by Francis I. of France. He reached our coast near the present *Cape Fear*, and sailing northward, visited, probably, the bay of New York and Narragansett Bay. The account he gave of the country made such an impression on Francis I. that ten years later (1534) he sent two ships to America, under the command of Jacques Cartier, who on his first voyage cruised about the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to which he gave that name. In his second voyage (1535) he went up the river St. Lawrence as far as the rapids. No lasting settlement was made. Still, the French, on account of these discoveries, regarded the region of the St. Lawrence as belonging to them. While the French were ineffectually striving to plant colonies along the St. Lawrence in the north, the Spaniards were doing the same in the south, in Florida. Narvaez, having landed in 1528 with three hundred men at Tampa Bay, marched to St. Mark's Bay, where, disgusted with the country, they built boats and pushed out into the Gulf. Being shipwrecked, they wandered about for more than six years. Four finally reached the Pacific coast, where they fell in with Spaniards and were cared for. Undeterred by the fate of Narvaez, eleven years later (1539) Hernando de Soto landed at Tampa Bay and set out on the track of Narvaez. He discovered (1541) the Mississippi, which he crossed near the site of the present city of Memphis. He soon afterward died, and his body was sunk in the Father of Waters. His companions, descending the river, reached the Gulf of Mexico, and returned to Cuba.

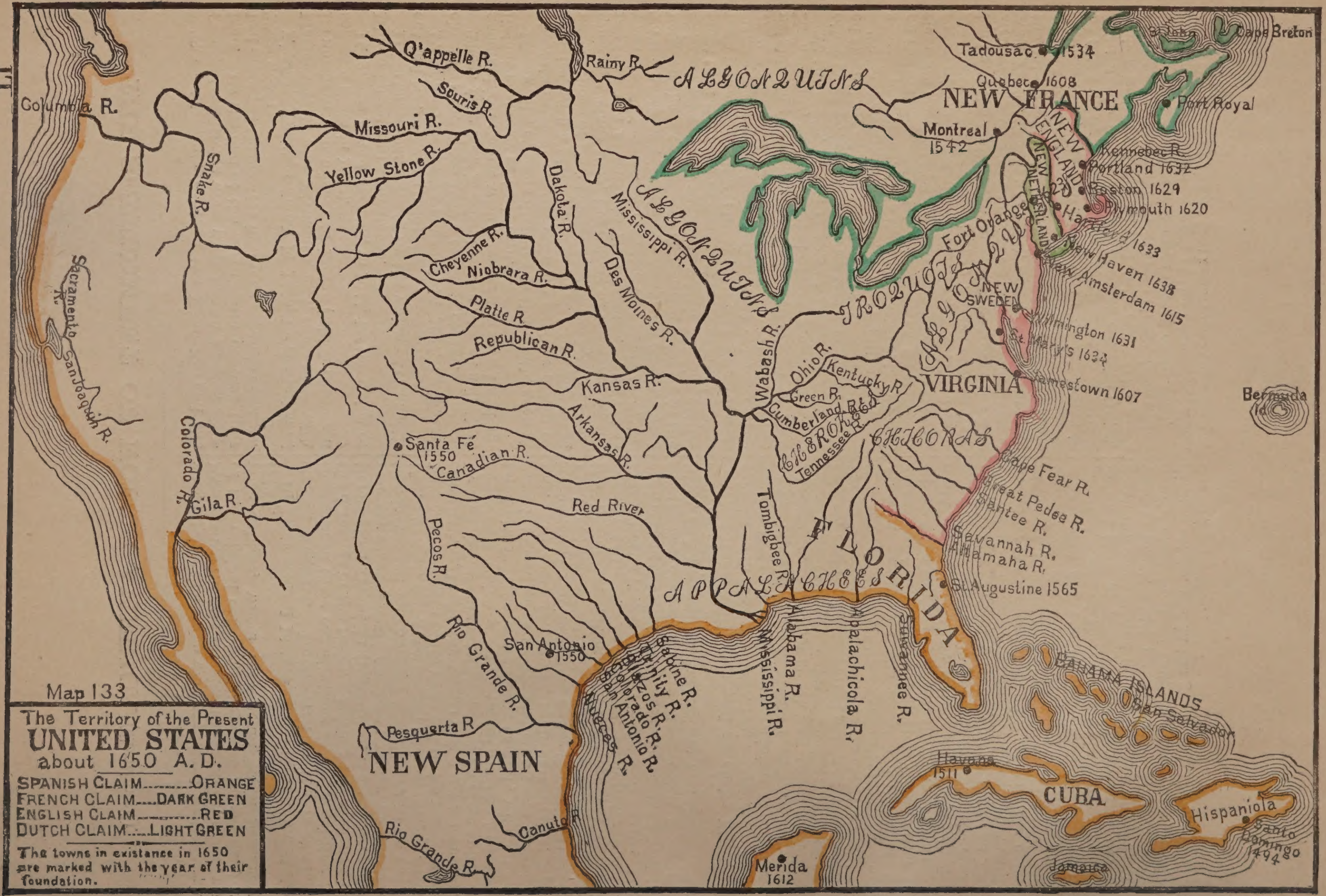
The next attempt to colonize Florida was made by Huguenots. Their first colony at Port Royal perished miserably (1562). A second colony (1564), near the St. John, held out a little longer, but was destroyed by the Spaniards in 1565. This destroyer of the French colony, Menendez, laid, in that same year, the foundation of St. Augustine, the oldest town within the bounds of the United States.

In 1584 the English made their first attempt to colonize the New World. Walter Raleigh landed on Roanoke Island, in Pamlico Sound (North Carolina). The country was called, after the maiden queen Elizabeth, Virginia. This name was then applied to all the country lying between the French dominion of Canada and the Spanish dominion of Florida. Twice the English attempted to plant a colony (1585 and 1587), and twice they failed. The French succeeded better in establishing a lasting colony on the St. Lawrence. The second settlement, which still exists, on the eastern coast, was Quebec, founded in 1608 by Samuel de Champlain.

Six years before this, Bartholomew Gosnold discovered a cape to which he gave the name of Cape Cod, which it has ever since borne. Pleased with the land he had discovered, he persuaded a number of men to form the Virginia Company, which ultimately received the right to hold all the land from Cape Fear to the St. Croix River. This territory was divided into two districts. The northern part was controlled by the Plymouth Company; the southern part by the London Company. By this London Company was made the *first permanent settlement by Englishmen in America.*

They explored the shores of a river which they named the James, after the then king of England, James I. They landed, May 13, 1607, on a low peninsula, and called the place Jamestown. They had named the two capes at the entrance of the bay Cape Henry and Cape Charles, after the king's sons. Jamestown existed for nearly seventy years, when it was burned in Bacon's rebellion (1676). From this time the European democracy began to turn their attention toward emigration, in the hope that on the free soil of America they might raise the edifice of a new State and a new Church in their own simple style.

Dutch, Swedes, and Englishmen began to emigrate to the shores which were included in the grant of the Virginia Company. They were for the most part Protestants, and of the strictest morality. The greater number were Puritans and Quakers. The emigrants had too much of the reserved and exclusive spirit of Protestants to form connection with the Indians, whom they regarded as scarcely human; but they were also conscientious enough to *purchase* the land from the natives. They followed their Teutonic bent to keep themselves apart in small and varied communities. Thus a Dutch town with a municipality was formed, 1615, in *New Amsterdam*; a theocracy, after the pattern of Geneva, in *Massachusetts*, 1620; in *Virginia*, 1624, an English province with high-church institutions; in *Maryland*, 1632, a feudal principality; in *Carolana*, 1653, a government consisting of eight lordships, with a great landed aristocracy; in *Connecticut*, 1633, a pure democracy, and in *Pennsylvania*, a cosmopolitan Quaker republic.



Map 133

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
about 1650 A. D.

SPANISH CLAIM..........ORANGE
FRENCH CLAIM.....DARK GREEN
ENGLISH CLAIM..............RED
DUTCH CLAIM......LIGHT GREEN

The towns in existance in 1650 are marked with the year of their foundation.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA (Continued).

The settlements between the Kennebec and the Connecticut Rivers were soon known as New England. By the end of the seventeenth century they had arranged themselves into four separate colonies. They were:

I. *Massachusetts*, formed, in 1629, by the union of Massachusetts and Plymouth, and, since 1652, with its northern dependency of Maine (which became a separate State in 1820).

II. *Rhode Island*, formed, in 1644, by the union of Rhode Island and Providence.

III. *Connecticut*, formed by the union of Connecticut and New Haven (1665).

IV. *New Hampshire*, annexed, in 1677, by Massachusetts; but since 1680 a separate colony.

These four New England States formed a distinct geographical group, with a marked political and religious character of their own.

Meanwhile, at some distance to the south, around *Virginia* as their centre, grew up another group of colonies, with a history and character in many ways unlike those of New England. To the south of Virginia was, since 1653, the colony of *Carolana*, reaching from the Atlantic to New Mexico. In 1729 it was divided into *North Carolina* and *South Carolina.* To the north of Virginia was Maryland (1639). But between these two groups of English colonies in the strictest sense lay a region in which English settlement took the form of conquest from another European power. Earlier (1613) than any English settlement, except Virginia, the great colony of the *United Provinces* had arisen on Long Island and the neighboring mainland. It bore the name of New Netherlands, with its capital of New Amsterdam.

To the south, on the shores of Delaware Bay, the other great power of the seventeenth century founded the colony of New Sweden (1638).

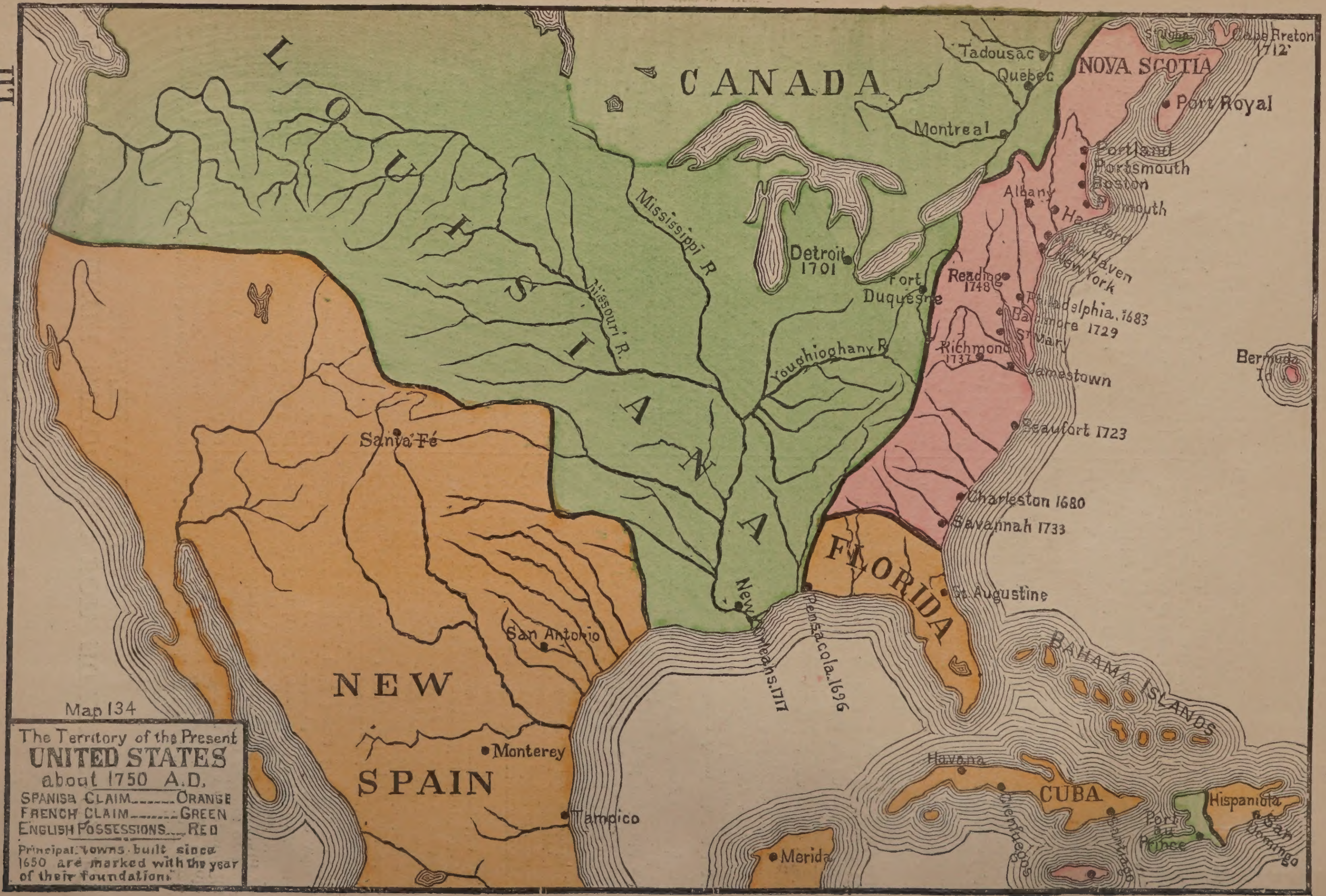
Three European nations, closely allied in race, speech, and creed, were thus for a while side by side on the eastern coasts of America. But the three settlements were fated to merge together, and that by force of arms. A local war, in 1655, added *New Sweden* to the *New Netherlands;* a war between England and the United Provinces, in 1664, gave the *New Netherlands* to England. *New Amsterdam* became *New York* (August 27, 1664), and gave its name to the colony which was to become the greatest State of the Union.

Meanwhile, the gap which was still left began to be filled up by other English settlements. *East* and *West Jersey* began as two distinct colonies (1676), which were, in 1680, united into one. The great colony of *Pennsylvania* next arose (1682), from which the small one of Delaware was parted off in 1703.

Fifty years after the work of the benevolent Penn came the work of the no less benevolent Oglethorpe, who, pitying those who were oppressed by the harsh laws against debtors, founded the thirteenth and last of the original colonies, *Georgia*, as an asylum for poor debtors, where they could begin life anew (1733).

In their general history these States followed the star of England. Unobserved in the beginning, they formed their constitutions freely, according to the demands of the times. During the existence of the English Republic (1650–1660) the spirit of democracy planted itself securely; under the restoration it suffered much injury and danger in its charters, liberties, self-government, and property. After 1688 each separate State returned to its previous institutions. Democracy was, after a long struggle, by that time firmly established. The same spirit of democracy which grew so rapidly in the State entered also into the affairs of the Church, where, however, it moved more slowly and on a more troubled way. In some few States, such as Carolina, New Netherlands, and Maryland, under the philanthropic Lord Baltimore, all religions were tolerated from the beginning, although they were not granted equal privileges. In Virginia, conformity was required to the views of the high-church party; but even among the Puritans of Massachusetts Calvinistic intolerance excluded every other creed from the State, and persecuted Anabaptists and Quakers by exile and death.

When Roger Williams urged an entire liberty of conscience in Massachusetts, and a separation of the Church from all matters appertaining to the State, he was obliged to fly from the country. Hereupon he founded, in 1636, a small, new society in Rhode Island, upon the principles of entire liberty of conscience, and the uncontrolled power of the majority in secular concerns, which became also the constitution of Connecticut. The French settlers in North America surrounded the English colonies of the coast both in the rear and on either side; they instigated the Indians to attack them, and, by a more rapid increase of their settlements, they hoped in some future time easily to advance upon the coast; but this aim of gaining an advantage over the English colonies by their geographical position was defeated by the indifference and incapacity for colonization of the French themselves. The first half-century of the French settlement in Louisiana (1700–1750) did not exhibit one-tenth part of the population and of the results which were produced in that time in New England. This fact only so much the more stirred up the jealousy of France toward England, which already derived but too much nourishment in their religious differences, in their diverse origin, and in the geographical proximity of the two countries.



Map 134

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
about 1750 A.D.
SPANISH CLAIM .... ORANGE
FRENCH CLAIM .... GREEN
ENGLISH POSSESSIONS .... RED
Principal towns built since 1650 are marked with the year of their foundation.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN NORTH AMERICA.

During the eighteenth century the colonies were growing fast in numbers and in wealth. Before the middle of the century their population amounted to nearly a million and a half, one-fifth of which were negroes.

As yet the Southern colonies were the more productive. While Virginia and Maryland boasted of their tobaccos, and the Carolinas and Georgia of their rice and indigo, the Northern colonies were restricted to their whale and cod-fisheries, their corn crops, and their timber trade.

New England, the poorest of all, stood, however, far ahead of all colonies, either north or south, in education. For the settlement of the Puritans had been followed at once by the establishment of a system of local schools. *Every township*, it was enacted, *after the* Lord *hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall appoint one to teach all children to read and write; and when any town shall increase to the number of a hundred families, they shall set up a grammar school.* The result of this was that in the middle of the eighteenth century New England was the one part of the world where every man and woman was able to read and write.

In the main features of their outer organization, the whole of the colonies stood fairly at one. There was the same outer diversity and the same real unity in the political tendency and organization of the States. Whether the *spirit* of the colony was democratic, moderate, or oligarchical, its *form* of government was pretty much the same. The original rights of the proprietor, or grantee, of the earliest settlement, had in all cases, save in those of Pennsylvania and Maryland, either ceased to exist, or fallen into desuetude.

The government of each colony lay in a *House of Assembly* elected by the people at large, with a *Council* and a *Governor*. The governor was generally appointed by the Crown, but in Connecticut and Rhode Island chosen by the colonists. With the appointment of these governors all administrative interference, on the part of England, practically ended. The assemblies alone exercised the right of internal taxation, and they exercised it sparingly. The colonies contributed to England's resources not by taxation, but by the monopoly of her trade. It was from England that they might import, to England alone that they might send their exports. But this restriction of trade was more than compensated by the commercial privileges which they enjoyed as British subjects.

As yet, therefore, there was nothing to break the good-will which the colonists felt toward the mother country, while the danger of French aggression drew them closely to it. For, populous as they had become, the English settlements still lay mainly along the seaboard of the Atlantic. It was not till the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, that the pretensions of France drew the eyes of the colonists to the interior of the continent. Planted firmly in Louisiana and Canada, France openly claimed the whole country west of the Alleghanies as its own, and its governors now ordered all English settlers or merchants to be driven from the valleys of the Ohio or Mississippi. The English, of course, retaliated. The original French settlers were driven from Acadia, and an English colony was planted there whose settlement of *Halifax* still bears the name of its founder (Lord Halifax).

The *Ohio Company* was formed in 1748, and its agents made their way to the valleys of that river and the Kentucky, while envoys from Virginia and Pennsylvania drew closer the alliance between their colonies and the Indian tribes across the mountains. The French were not slow in accepting the challenge, and planted in defiance Fort *Duquesne*, on the fork of the Ohio (1754).

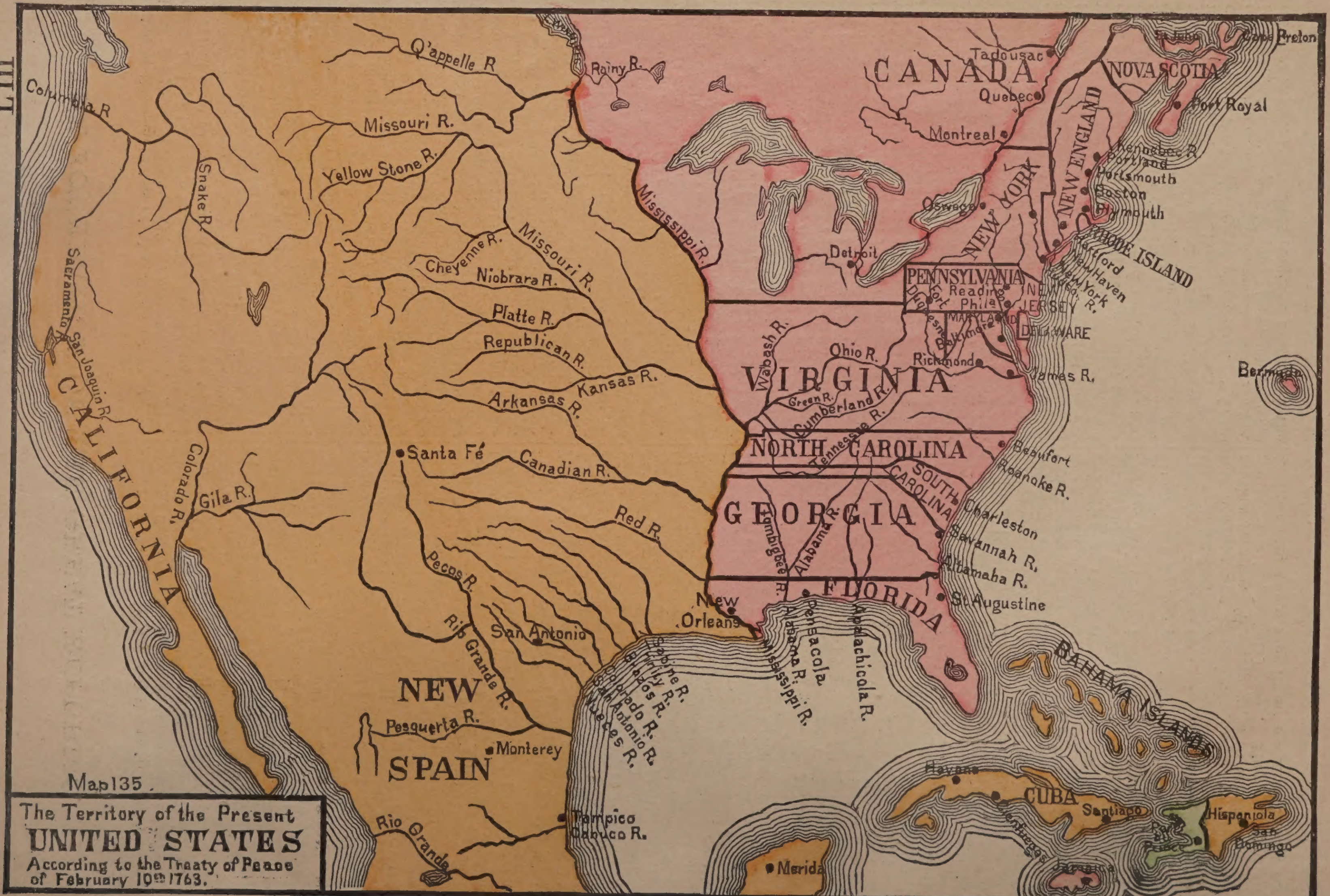
The Marquis of Montcalm, who was now governor of Canada, fearlessly carried out the plans of annexation. The three forts of *Duquesne*, *Niagara*, and *Ticonderoga* were linked together by a chain of lesser forts, which cut off the English colonists from all access to the West. The bulk of the Indians from Canada to the Mississippi had been attached to the cause of France, and the value of their aid was shown in 1755, when General Braddock marched on Fort Duquesne. The force was utterly routed, and he himself slain.

But three years later, a force from Philadelphia and Virginia, guided and inspired by the courage of George Washington, finally subdued Fort Duquesne (November 25, 1758). The name of Pittsburg, which was given to their new conquest, still commemorates the enthusiasm of the colonists for the great minister who opened to them the West. He had won the sympathies of the colonists by an order which gave their provincial officers equal rank with the royal officers in the field. They raised, at Pitt's call, 20,000 men, and taxed themselves heavily for their support.

Three expeditions were simultaneously directed against the French line—one to the Ohio valley, one against Ticonderoga, while a third sailed to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and reduced the whole province of Cape Breton. In 1759 Ticonderoga and Niagara were taken. The capture of the three forts was the close of the French effort to bar the advance of the colonists to the valley of the Mississippi, and to place in other than English hands the destinies of North America.

The capture of Quebec by Wolfe (1759), and of Montreal by Amherst (1760), put for always an end to the dream of a French empire in America.

By the Peace of Paris (February 10, 1763), France gave up Canada, Nova Scotia, and Louisiana, as far as the Mississippi, while they resigned the rest of that province to Spain, in compensation for its surrender of Florida to the British Crown.



Map 135.

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
According to the Treaty of Peace
of February 10th 1763.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC.

After the conclusion of the *Peace of Paris*, in 1763, the English debt stood at $700,000,000. Provision had to be made to pay the interest on it, and as it had been partly incurred in the defence of the American colonies, it was the general opinion of Englishmen that the colonies should contribute their just share toward the relief of the burdens left by the war. For these colonies were looked upon as being as completely English soil as England itself, and in their relation to the government there was no difference between an Englishman of Massachusetts and an Englishman of Kent. No bounds could be fixed for the supremacy of *the King in Parliament* over every subject of the Crown, and the colonist of America was as absolutely a subject as the ordinary Englishman. What the colonists urged against this was, that they were, no doubt, Englishmen, but Englishmen who were parted from England by 3,000 miles of ocean. They could not, if they would, share the common political life of men at home ; nature had imposed on them their own political life. No Act of Parliament could annihilate the Atlantic. Taxation and representation went hand in hand. America had no representatives in Parliament. The representatives of the colonies met in their own colonial assemblies, and they were quite willing to grant supplies to the mother country. Massachusetts marked accurately the position she took : "*The power of taxing is the grand banner of British liberty. If that is once broken down, all is lost.*"

This distinction was at once accepted by the Assembly of every colony, and it was with their protest and offer that they despatched Benjamin Franklin, as their agent, to England, to announce that the colonists were willing *to tax themselves* for the general defence. Unluckily, Franklin could give no assurance as to a union of the colonies for the purpose of such taxation, and without such an assurance the government had no mind to change its plans.

In February, 1765, therefore, Parliament passed the Stamp Act, a tax on all legal documents issued within the colonies. Vigorously as he had struggled against the Act, Franklin saw no other course for the colonies but that of submission. But submission was the very last thing they dreamed of. Everywhere through New England riots broke out on the news of the arrival of the stamped paper, and the frightened collectors resigned their posts.

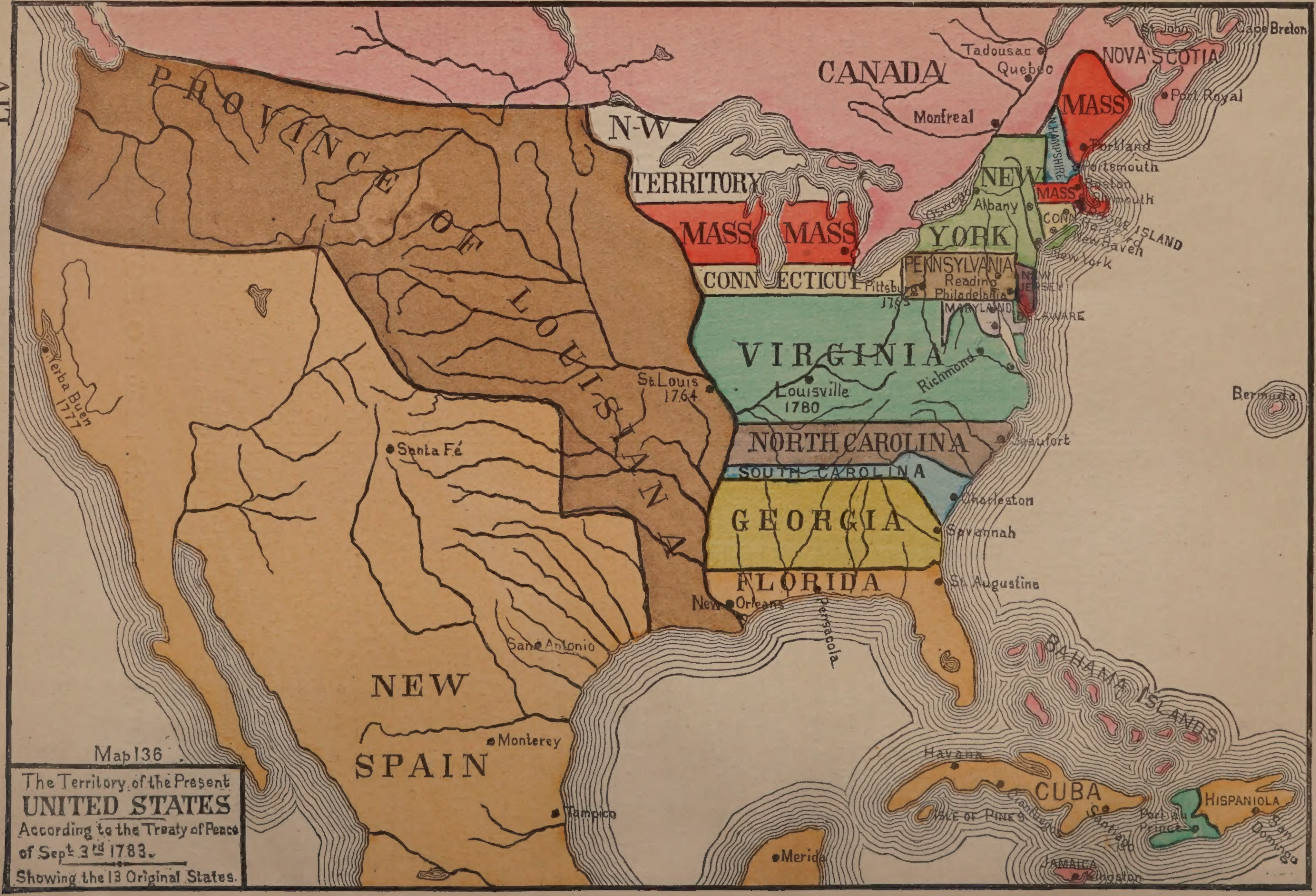
The Assembly of Virginia was the first to formally deny the right of the British Parliament to meddle with internal taxation, and to demand the repeal of the Act. Massachusetts not only adopted the denial and the demand as its own, but proposed a congress of delegates from all the colonial assemblies to provide for common and united action, and in October, 1765, this congress met in New York. Nine colonies took part in it. For the first time, the whole country had a common cause, and there was need that the people should consult together. This congress was the beginning of the Union. "*There ought to be no New Englandman, no New Yorker, known on this continent,*" said one of its members, "*but all of us Americans.*" This congress demanded the *repeal of the Stamp Act*, and the people everywhere showed their determination to support this demand. The Stamp Act was repealed March, 1766, for the English Government saw that it was impossible to enforce it.

This withdrawal was accompanied, however, with an offensive declaration of the supreme rights of the mother country over her colonies. George III. regretted this repeal deeply: "All men feel," the king wrote, "that this fatal compliance has increased the pretensions of the Americans to absolute independence." In America, the news of the repeal had been received with universal joy, and taken as a close of the strife. On both sides, however, there remained a pride and irritability which only wise handling could have allayed. But it became soon clear that wise handling was not to be expected of the English Government. A renewed attempt was made in 1767 to raise duties in America on tea, paper, painters' colors, and glass. They were all abandoned, however, in 1770, except the duty on tea.

When, in 1773, permission was given to the East India Company to export their surplus stock to America, these cargoes were destroyed in Boston Harbor (December 18th). The quarrel was now becoming serious and complicated. In the spring of 1774, Acts were passed by the British Parliament for suppressing the Port of Boston, for abolishing the charter and democratic government of Massachusetts, and for authorizing the governors of colonies to send home persons guilty of rebellion, to be tried by the Court of King's Bench. General Gage was sent to Boston to enforce these measures ; but the troops at his disposal were not adequate to support such vigorous proceedings. The colonists agreed to abstain from using British merchandise till Massachusetts should be restored to its privileges ; while a general congress, which met at Philadelphia (December, 1774), resolved to repel force by force. They drew up addresses to the people of Great Britain, as well as to the colonies ; and also a petition to the king, in which they professed their loyalty. But, in spite of Lord Chatham's eloquent warnings, the English Government persisted in its course.

In February, 1775, bills were brought in to restrain the commerce of the New England provinces, and to exclude them from the Newfoundland fisheries. These measures were shortly followed by a collision between the colonial militia and the royal troops, which inaugurated the war which led to independence. General Gage, having dispersed some militia at Lexington (April 19, 1775), the farmers assembled on all sides, attacked the king's troops at Concord Bridge, and drove them back to the suburbs of Boston.

The congress now appointed George Washington commander-in-chief, and on the 6th of July, 1775, they published a *declaration* explaining their motives, but denying any intention to separate from the mother country. Washington, with 20,000 raw recruits, now blockaded Boston. They marched to Charlestown, where they threw up fortifications on



Map 136

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
According to the Treaty of Peace
of Sept. 3rd 1783.
Showing the 13 Original States.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC (Continued).

Bunker Hill, which commands Boston, and though on the 17th of June they were driven from it, it was only after a desperate struggle, in which their bravery put an end forever to the taunts of cowardice which had been levelled against them. The blockade of Boston, however, still continued, and in March, 1776, Howe was compelled to abandon the town and to retire to Halifax, in Nova Scotia. The Americans, elated with their success, made now an attempt upon Canada (November, 1775), and though this attempt broke down before Quebec, it showed that all hope of reconciliation was over.

The English Government felt the necessity for making more vigorous efforts, and, early in 1776, treaties had been concluded with some German princes (Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, etc.), by which they engaged to supply between 17,000 and 18,000 men to serve against the Americans. This afforded the colonists a motive for altogether renouncing their connection with the mother country. On July 4, 1776, Congress, under the presidency of John Hancock, made its *Declaration of Independence*, after a fierce resistance from the delegates of Pennsylvania and South Carolina, and in spite of the abstention of those of New York.

"*We*," ran its solemn words, "*the representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States.*"

The Declaration of Independence encouraged France to afford more active assistance to the nascent republic. Although Louis XVI. was averse to a war with England, his Queen, Marie Antoinette, was ardent in the cause of American liberty, and her feeling was shared by Vergennes, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and their councils prevailed. It was not, however, till 1778, that France formally recognized American independence. The campaign of 1777 had first gone in favor of the English. Howe had defeated Washington at the Brandywine (September 11th); had subsequently taken Philadelphia (26th), and again repulsed Washington at Germantown (October 24th). But these successes were more than counterbalanced by the surrender of Burgoyne, at Saratoga, to Gates (October 16th).

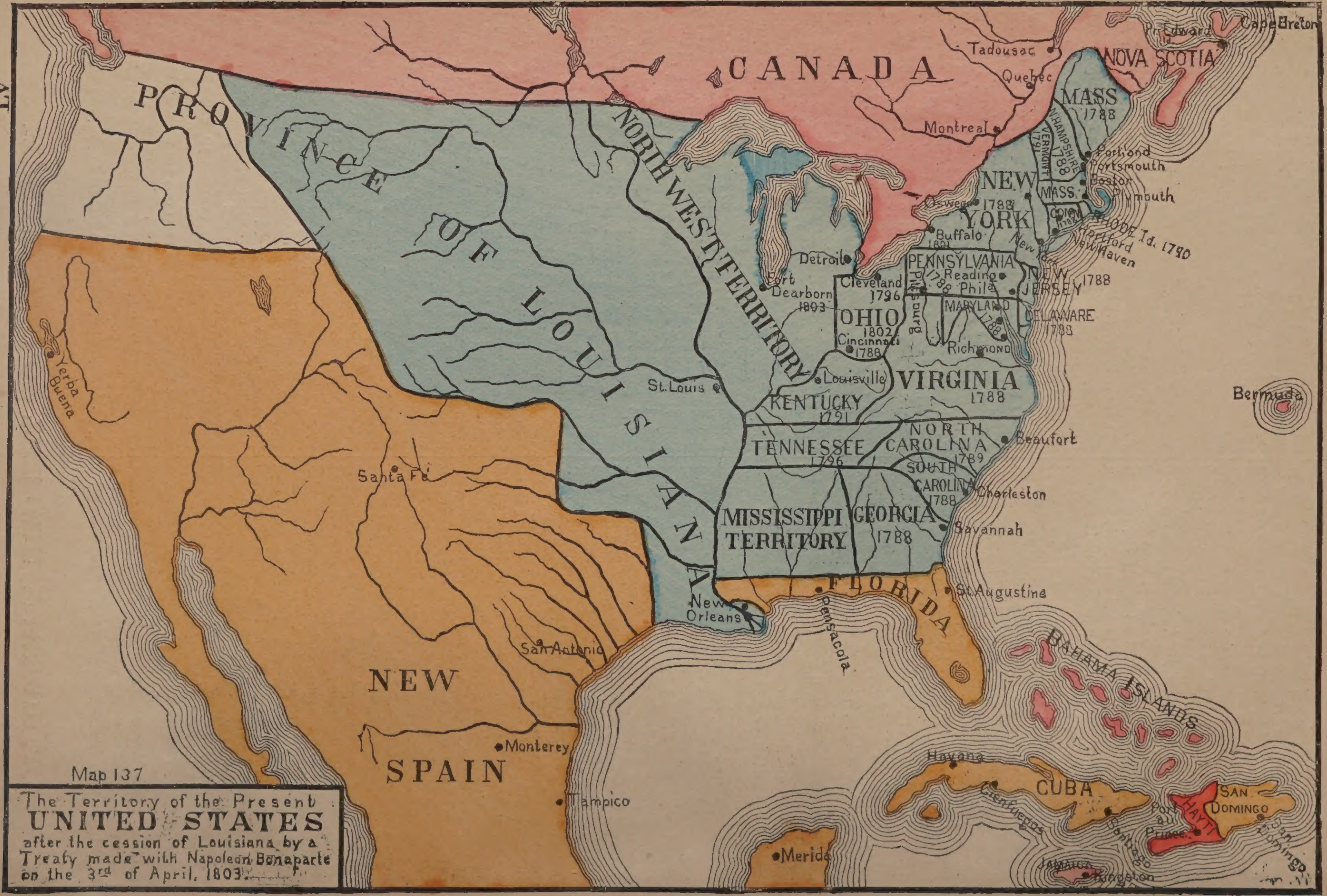
The news of Saratoga now induced France (February 6, 1778), to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with the United States. Long before this, however, many distinguished Frenchmen had offered their swords to America, and had been bravely fighting for its independence; among them may be named Lafayette, Rochambeau, de Noailles, etc. After Burgoyne's surrender, the English generals had withdrawn from Pennsylvania, and bent all their efforts on the Southern States, where a strong royalist party still existed.

But the capture of Charleston and Savannah, and the successes of Lord Cornwallis in 1780, were rendered fruitless by the obstinate resistance of Nathaniel Greene, who, with a small, ill-clad, and ill-furnished army, pushed the British from post to post. He forced them out of Georgia and the Carolinas, except that they still held Savannah and Charleston. Finally he drove them to the peninsula, formed by the York and James rivers in Virginia, where Cornwallis entrenched himself in the lines of Yorktown. A sudden march of Washington brought him to the front of the English troops at a moment that the French fleet, under Count de Grasse, held the entrance to the bay. Cornwallis, caught in a trap, was forced, October 19, 1781, to a surrender as humiliating as that of Saratoga. This surrender was accepted on both sides as the end of the war.

It was nearly two years, however, before the treaty of peace was finally signed (September 3, 1783), in which England reserved to herself on the American continent only Canada, Nova Scotia, and the island of Newfoundland; and acknowledged without reserve the INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The territory of the new republic reached from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the great lakes it spread to the southern border of Georgia. This vast tract was parcelled out among the thirteen original States, of which seven had well-defined boundaries; of the remaining six, some laid claim to lands since given to other States, while a few would content themselves with no limits short of the Mississippi. Its population may have been about three and a quarter millions, who inhabited a narrow line of towns and hamlets, extending with many breaks, along the coast from Maine to Georgia. But fifty miles back from the Atlantic coast the country was an unbroken jungle.

When, seven years after the peace, the first census was taken (1790), there was found to be a population of nearly 4,000,000 who occupied a belt of country between the Alleghanies and the sea. The second census (1800) showed over five and a quarter millions, who had spread far beyond the Alleghanies. In 1803, when the union was composed of seventeen States, while the population was pressing over the plains to the Mississippi, the territory of the republic was suddenly more than doubled by the purchase of Louisiana from Emperor Napoleon I. for $15,000,000.



Map 137

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
after the cession of Louisiana by a
Treaty made with Napoleon Bonaparte
on the 3rd of April, 1803.

FIRST TRIALS OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC.

In the beginning of the nineteenth century, while the flames of war consumed the nations of the Old World, the mercantile fleet of the United States enjoyed a monopoly. The young republic traded impartially with all the combatants. While the energies of Europe were taxed to the uttermost by a gigantic work of mutual destruction, the American merchants made great gain of their madness. But during the struggle between France and England, the decrees of a mutual blockade of their ports, issued by both belligerents, closed Europe against American vessels. Many captures were made, especially by English cruisers. Besides, English men-of-war claimed the right to search American vessels for men who had deserted; and also for men who, as born English subjects, were liable to be impressed. America unwisely retaliated by closing her ports against the European powers who had so offended. Thus for four years commerce was suspended, and grass grew on the idle wharves of New York and Philadelphia. Tens of thousands of working people were thrown idle. The irritation of the impoverished nation was fast ripening toward war. On June 18, 1812, Congress passed a bill which declared war against Great Britain. It was by no means a unanimous movement. New England bitterly opposed it. The chief support came from the South and West, which, having no towns to be bombarded, preferred to try their strength with England in battle.

The declaration of war seemed an act of sheer madness. For England possessed one thousand men-of-war, and the United States hardly twenty. England had a million of well-drilled veterans—the army of the United States, hardly numbering twenty-five thousand, was a mass of half-drilled and half-armed recruits. Three attempts to penetrate into Canada during the summer and fall were repulsed with heavy loss. But these failures were more than redeemed by unexpected successes at sea, where in successive engagements five British men-of-war were taken in battle by the Americans and forced to strike their flag. The effect of these victories was immense, for they were *the first heavy blows which had been dealt at England's supremacy over the seas.*

In 1813, these naval triumphs on the ocean were followed up by even more vigorous efforts on the inland seas. Under Perry's direction a fleet was built on Lake Erie, which utterly destroyed the British flotilla; Toronto was captured, and Upper Canada occupied. An attack on Lower Canada, however, failed, and a fresh advance of the British and Canadian forces recovered the Upper Province.

This reverse gave fresh strength to the peace party. Cries of secession began to be heard, and Massachusetts took the bold step of appointing delegates from the other New England States "on the subject of their grievances and common concerns."

In 1814, however, the war was renewed with more vigor than ever. Upper Canada was again invaded. But the American army, after inflicting two severe defeats on the British forces, at Chippewa, July 5th, and at Lundy's Lane, July 25th, was forced, for want of ammunition, to retreat to the defences of Fort Erie. A month later, August 24th, General Ross appeared on the Potomac, captured the defenceless town of Washington, and before evacuating it, burned its public buildings to the ground.

Successful as the valiant British were in burning a defenceless town, they failed signally in their attempts to penetrate into the Republic from the north and from the south.

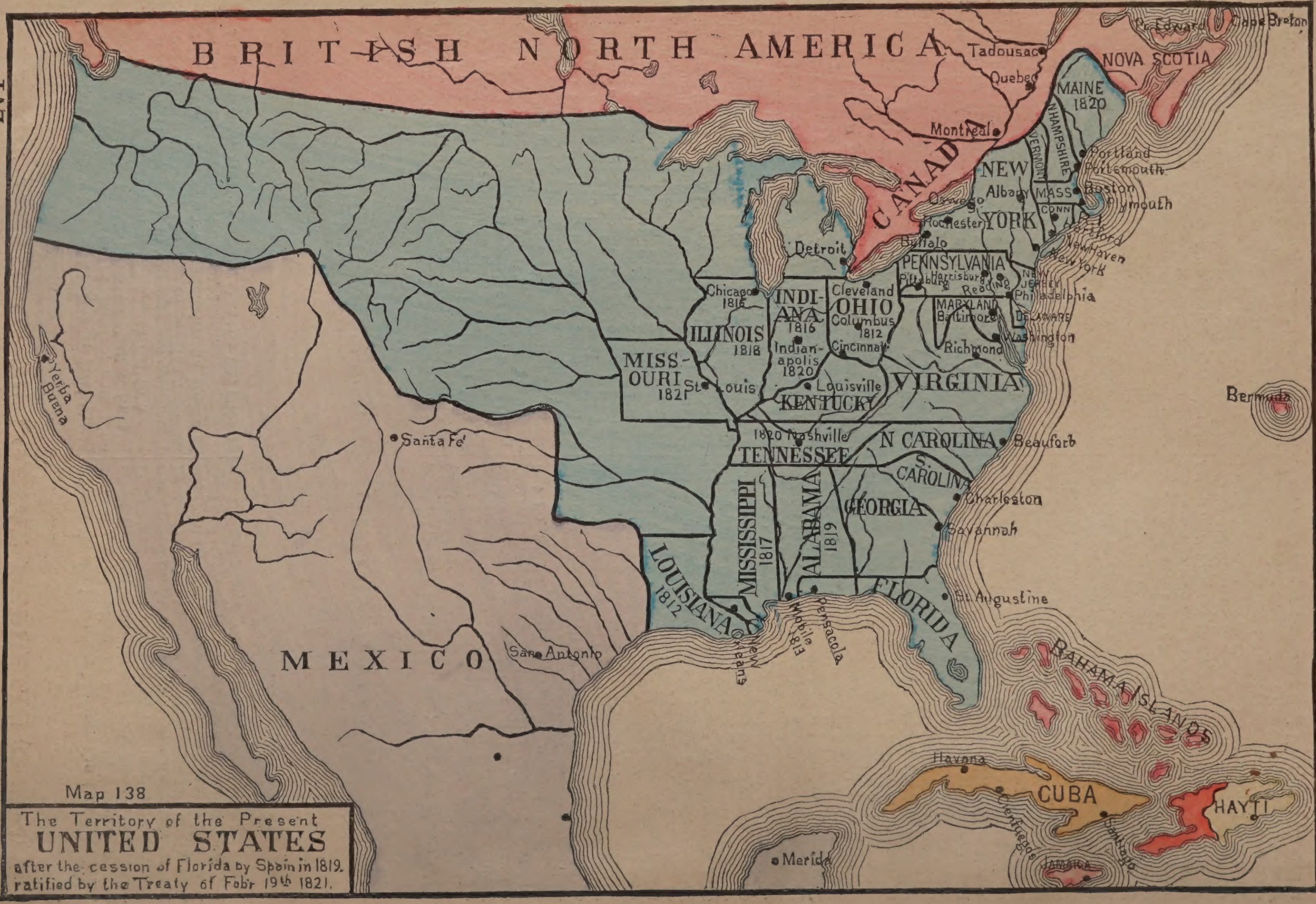
The British army, which marched in September to the attack of Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, was forced to fall back by the defeat of the English flotilla which accompanied it. A second force, under General Packenham, appeared in December at the mouth of the Mississippi, and attacked New Orleans, but was repulsed (January 8, 1815) by General Jackson, with the loss of half its number. Peace, however, had already been concluded (December 24, 1814, at Ghent). By this war, the independence of the United States was securely fixed. England withdrew her last claim to sovereignty. The Republic was henceforth to be one of the great powers of the world. It still, however, was cut off from the Gulf of Mexico by the Spanish dependency of the Floridas. Finally, in 1819, Spain gave up all claim to West Florida, which had been occupied by the United States since 1810, and ceded East Florida. The United States gave up all claim to Texas, and agreed to pay an indemnity of five millions to its own citizens for claims which they had against Spain.

On March 3, 1822, Congress passed an act establishing the Territory of Florida, and the machinery of free representative government was soon in regular working order, and immigration began to move in. The settling of the country would have proceeded much more rapidly but for the difficulties presented by the Indians, who were in possession of the best lands, and extremely jealous of their rights. It was the desire of the whites that they should be removed to some reservation west of the Mississippi. But the majority of the Indians were bitterly opposed to such a change, and when the authorities determined to remove them by force, they stoutly resisted. Hereupon began the longest, bloodiest, and costliest war that was ever waged between whites and Indians in America.

The *Seminole War* began with the appalling massacre of Major Dade's command on December 23, 1835, and raged unceasingly until August, 1842. But, though triumphant in the end, the United States had paid dearly for the victory, and the growth of Florida had been set back fully a generation. Plantations that dated from the earliest settlement of the country had been broken up, agricultural occupations had been almost completely suspended, and immigrants were deterred from venturing where the conditions of life were so precarious. But after the war was ended, immigration began afresh, and in 1845 Florida was admitted to the Union.

The United States now controlled the entire seaboard from the St. Croix River in the Northeast to the Sabine River in the Southwest. When Louisiana was purchased from France (1803), there was a dispute with Spain whether its boundary was the Sabine River or the Rio Grande. Although it had been settled, at the cession of Florida, that the boundary between Louisiana and Mexico should be the Sabine River, the Washington government continued to have an eye on the Rio Grande as border line.

Both John Quincy Adams and Jackson, during their presidential terms, tried to buy Texas (the country between the Sabine and Rio Grande) of



Map 138

The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
after the cession of Florida by Spain in 1819.
ratified by the Treaty of Febr 19th 1821.

FIRST TRIALS OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC (Continued).

Mexico, but it refused to sell. But in 1836 Texas declared itself independent of Mexico, and, nine years later (1845), applied for admission to the Union. The granting of this request led to a war with Mexico (1846–1848), in which it was conquered, General Scott entering the city of Mexico September 14, 1847. The war was ended by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848).

In this treaty, Mexico agreed that the Rio Grande should be the boundary between the two republics, and, in consideration of $15,000,000, ceded to the United States the provinces of New Mexico and Upper California. Five years later, the boundary between the United States and Mexico was definitely settled by the Gadsden purchase. (See Map 140.) The area acquired by these two cessions was nearly five hundred and sixty-eight thousand square miles, for which the United States paid in all $25,000,000.

THE GREAT TRIAL—THE CIVIL WAR.

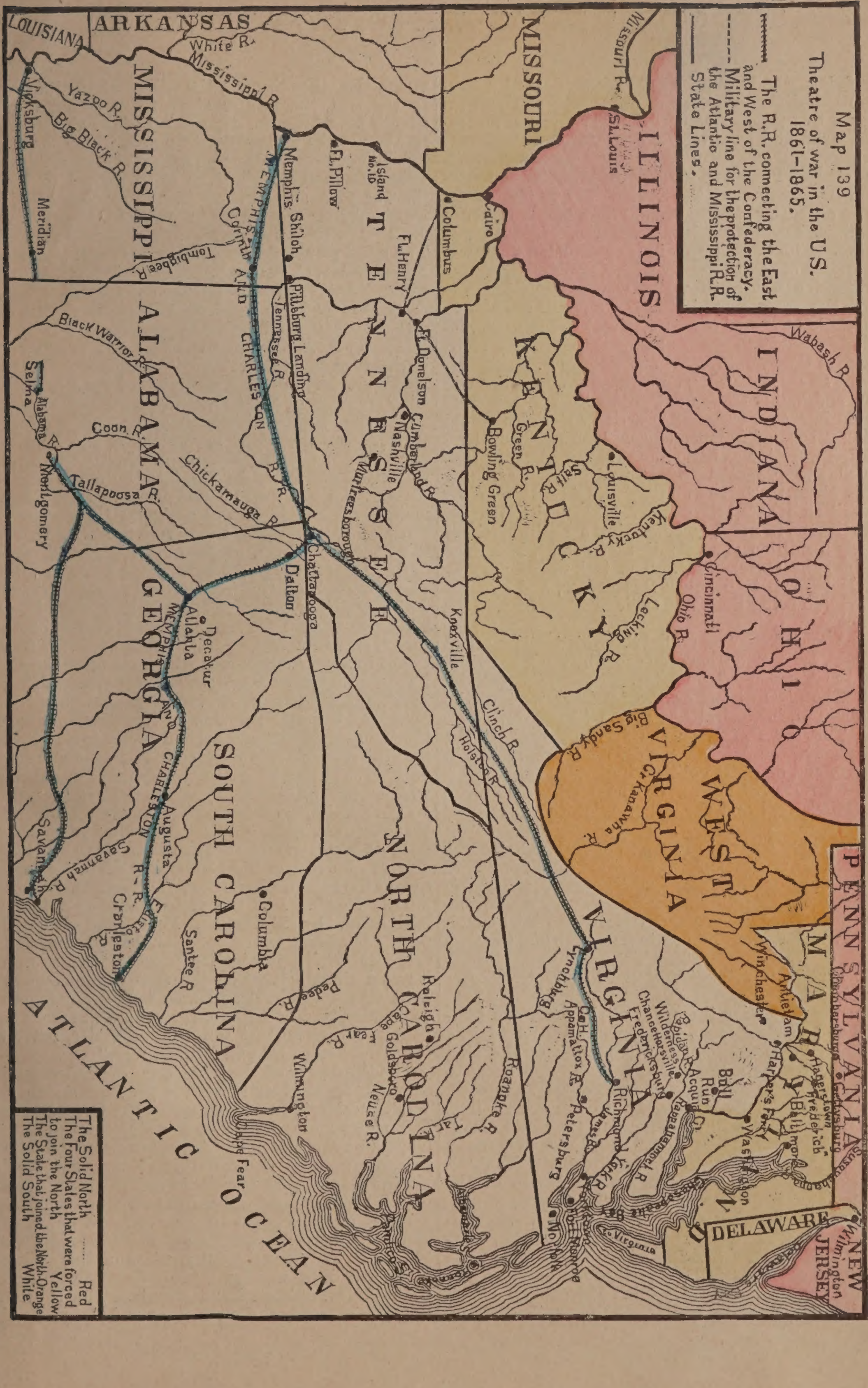
When Europeans first visited the southern part of the present United States, they found in abundant growth there an unimportant looking plant, two or three feet in height, studded with pods, which, opening in the ball, revealed a wealth of soft, white fibre, to which the seeds of the plant were tenaciously adhering. This was cotton. The English began very soon to cultivate it, although it was a difficult crop for them to handle; for, before the fibre could be used, the seeds had to be removed, and it was as much as a man could do in a day to separate one pound of cotton from the seeds. Cotton could never be abundant or cheap while this was the case.

But, after *Richard Arkwright* had (1768) invented his spinning-machine, and James Watt (1769) his steam-engine, England was ready to begin to weave cotton for the world, if only it could get the cotton. This problem was solved, in 1792, by Eli Whitney's cotton-gin, a simple machine, which could perform the work of hundreds of men. Whitney's invention made the growth of cotton profitable; and, as a consequence, slave-holding became lucrative, for slaves proved to be the cheapest hands in the cotton-fields. Cotton was king, and slavery was its life-guard. The North participated in the gains of slavery. The cotton-planter borrowed money at high interest from the Northern capitalist. He bought his goods in Northern markets; he sent his cotton to the North for sale. The Northern merchants made money at his hands, and were in no haste to overthrow the Southern institutions, out of which results so pleasant flowed; besides, they were convinced that the condition of the slaves was far preferable to that of the free European laborer.

But among another part of the population of the North hatred to slavery was slowly growing. In the eyes of some of them, slavery was an enormous sin, fitted to bring the curse of God upon the land. To others it was a political evil, marring the unity, and hindering the progress of the country. In 1832 the American Anti-slavery Society was formed, composed of *twelve* members. But within three years there were two hundred anti-slavery societies in America; in seven years more they had increased to two thousand. The war against slavery was now begun in earnest. One man, towering far above all pro-slavery and anti-slavery leaders, sought to calm the strife, which he foresaw would lead to a disruption of the Union and to civil war; this was *Henry Clay*, of Kentucky.

For many years of the prolonged struggle, he seemed to stand between North and South, wielding authority over both. His aim was to deliver his dearly beloved country from the taint of slavery; but he would effect that great revolution step by step, as the country could bear it. True statesman as he was, at every crisis he was ready with a compromise—the only object of all true statesmanship. His proposals soothed the angry passions which were aroused when Missouri sought admission into the Union. By the Missouri compromise (1820) slavery was to be permitted in Missouri, but was to be prohibited forever in all other territory north of 36° 30′, the southern boundary of Missouri. But thirty years later it was repealed, and to the territories north of 36° 30′ the right was given to decide by vote, whether they were to be slave or free states. In 1852 a contest arose in Congress over the organization into territories of the country lying west of Missouri and Iowa. Senator Douglas introduced a bill for organizing the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, giving them, according to the compromise of 1850, the right to decide whether they were to have slavery or not. The bill was passed in 1854, after a sharp debate, which proved that the conflict was irrepressible. After much wrangling, and even fighting, they declared against slavery. In 1860 the Republican, or anti-slavery, party elected Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency. The South had declared beforehand, that if the Republican party were successful, the slave-holding States would leave the Union. South Carolina now took the lead in fulfilling the promise of secession. The Senators from the State, and all office-holders in South Carolina under the Federal Government, resigned. The Legislature called a State convention, which on December 20th unanimously passed an ordinance of secession. It bore the title, "*An ordinance to dissolve the union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her in the compact entitled the Constitution of the United States.*"

The example of South Carolina was at once followed by Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida. They formed (February 7, 1861) a government under the name of the *Confederate States of America*, thereby declaring that the States formed a



Map 139
Theatre of war in the U.S.
1861–1865.

The R.R. connecting the East and West of the Confederacy.
Military line for the protection of the Atlantic and Mississippi R.R.
State Lines.

The Solid North	Red
The Four States that were forced to join the North	Yellow
The State that joined the North	Orange
The Solid South	White

Confederacy and not a *Union*. They adopted a constitution, differing from the old mainly in these respects, that it contained provisions against a protective tariff, and gave effective securities for the permanence and extension of slavery. Jefferson Davis was elected President for six years. After the government was formed, the Confederacy was joined by those other slave States who, at first, had hesitated—Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Texas. The Confederacy in its completed form was composed of eleven States, with a population of nine millions, one-third of which were slaves. Twenty-three States remained in the Union, their population amounting to twenty-two millions. War was now inevitable, but both parties believed that after a short struggle they would come out victorious.

The South, despising an adversary unpractised in war, and vainly trusting that the European powers would interfere, expected that a few victories would bring peace and independence. The North still regarded secession as little more than a gigantic riot, which she proposed to extinguish within ninety days. The truth was strangely different from the prevailing belief of the day. A high-spirited people, six millions in number, occupying a fertile territory nearly a million square miles in extent, had risen against the Government. The task undertaken by the North was to conquer this people, and by force of arms to bring them and their territory back to the Union.

The Confederacy presented three distinctly-marked regions, separated from each other by the Mississippi and the Alleghany Mountains.

1. The *right region*, or the territory west of the Mississippi, intrinsically of little military value.
2. The *left region*, or the territory east of the Alleghany Mountains, a constant menace to Washington, and of great political importance.
3. The *central region*, or the territory between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies, the strategical heart of the Confederacy.

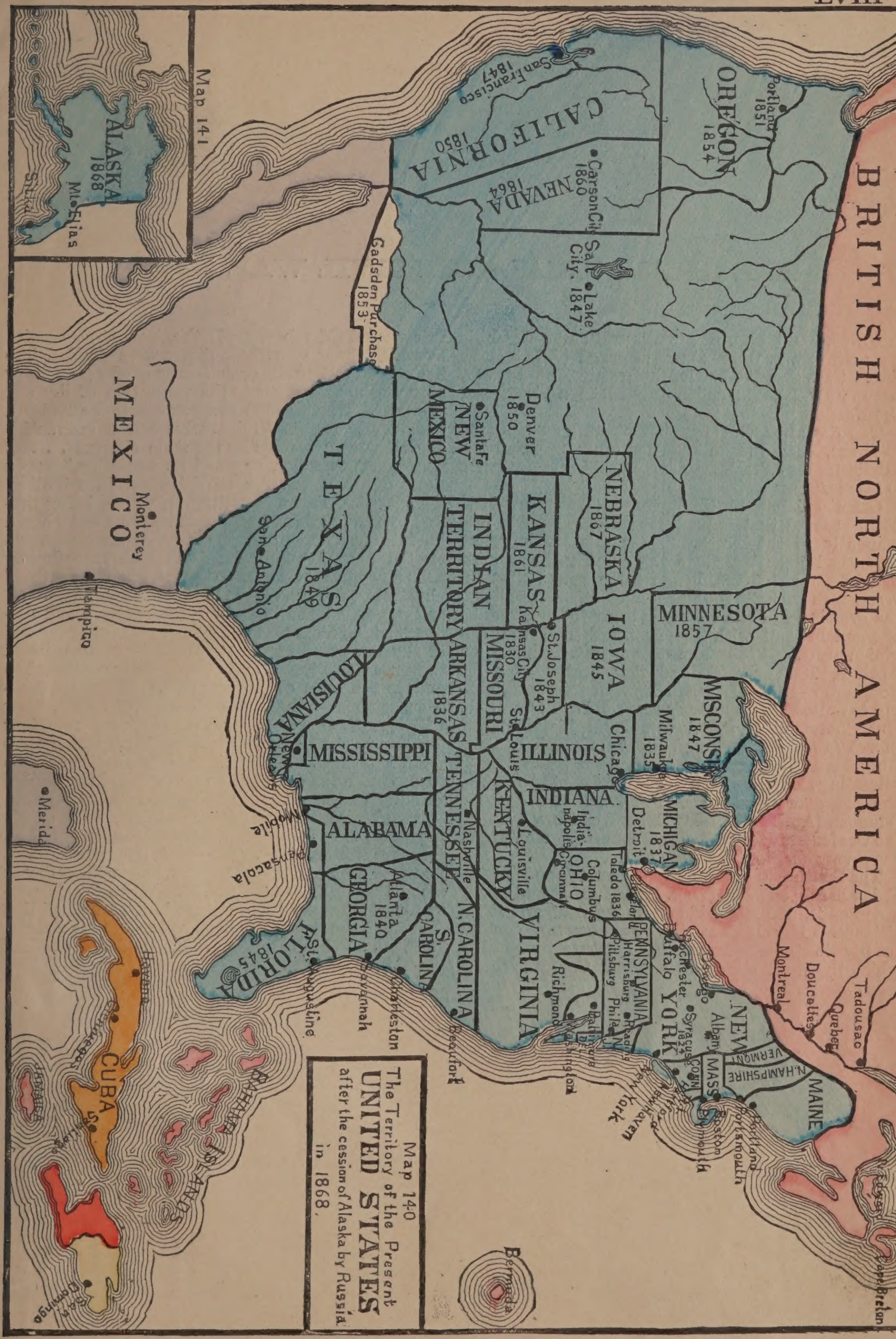
Their only complete east and west bond was the railroad from Memphis, on the Mississippi, to Charleston, on the Atlantic. The great strategical position on this line was Chattanooga, where the road bifurcates in a northern branch to Richmond, and a south-eastern branch to Savannah and Charleston.

The cutting of this railroad would be the severing of the Confederacy.

For its protection there was established, one hundred and fifty miles to the north, parallel to it, a military line extending from Columbus, on the Mississippi, through Forts Henry and Donelson, to Bowling Green. A navigable river, the Tennessee, flows perpendicularly through this northern line, and runs parallel with the Memphis-Charleston Railroad. The task of the North was, to burst through the *Columbus-Bowling Green line*, break the *Memphis-Charleston Railroad*, and secure possession of the strategic point of Chattanooga. This being accomplished, the opening of the Mississippi would follow, as a matter of course. The great result, however, would be the division of the Confederacy, the preliminary of its fall. For this would place the Confederate forces in Virginia between two Union armies, one threatening it from the north of Richmond, the other through the portal of Chattanooga. In the east, the proper aim of the Union armies should have been the destruction of the Confederate forces, not the taking of Richmond, which the Confederacy could afford to lose without being materially weakened thereby. But the North hoped to bring the war to a speedy close by the capture of Richmond. Their first forward movement, however, terminated in their utter defeat at Bull Run (July 21st). The great result of this defeat was that it taught the North the real nature of the terrific struggle in which it was engaged. On the day after the battle, Congress voted five hundred millions of dollars and called for half a million of volunteers.

George B. McClellan was appointed commander-in-chief under the President (October 31, 1861). He employed the fall and winter of 1861 in organizing an army of 200,000 men. Tired of his inactivity, the President issued an order that on February 22, 1862, a general movement of the land and naval forces should take place. With this order, which was suggested by *Stanton*, the new Secretary of War, the war may be said to have begun systematically. To Grant was assigned the forcing of the *Columbus-Bowling Green line*. Proceeding up the Tennessee River, he took *Fort Henry* (February 6th). Then marching across the country, he took *Fort Donelson*, on the Cumberland River (February 16th), and the first Confederate line was pierced. This victory gave the North absolute control of Kentucky, and of a large part of Tennessee. The attempt to recover them was given up after the Confederate defeat at Murfreesborough (December 31, 1862), which battle convinced them that they could not break through the line of investment between the Cumberland Mountains and the Free States, and that the struggle was destined to be a long and fierce one. The financial strength of the Confederacy, which was the measure of her war strength, turned on the possibility of converting her cotton into gold. To prevent this, the Southern ports had to be blockaded or taken. Such effective measures were taken that at the end of 1862 every city of the sea-coast, except Savannah, Charleston, and Mobile, was held by the North. But the various attempts to take Richmond, by McClellan, Pope, and Burnside, proved total failures. On September 22, 1862, Lincoln issued his emancipation proclamation, in which it was declared, "that on the first day of January, 1863, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward and forever, free."

The third year of the war (1863) opened very disastrously for the North, both in the East and in the West. Galveston was retaken by the Confederates; Burnside's march upon Lee was stopped by storms; Dupont's naval attack on Charleston failed; the Confederate cruisers destroyed the commerce of the North; Banks was unable to take Port Hudson; Grant had not yet accomplished the capture of Vicksburg. The battle of Chancellorsville (May 2d and 3d), where Hooker's army was well-nigh annihilated by Lee, was the culmination of this series of disasters. Lee, moving rapidly down the Shenandoah Valley, entered Pennsylvania. The Northern army, reinforced, and now commanded by Meade,



Map 140
The Territory of the Present
UNITED STATES
after the cession of Alaska by Russia
in 1868.

Map 141

THE GREAT TRIAL—THE CIVIL WAR (Continued).

followed, and took up a strong position on the hills near *Gettysburg*, where it was attacked (July 1st) by Lee. This decisive battle, the greatest of the war, began July 1st, and ended July 3d, in a victory for the North.

The day after Gettysburg, Vicksburg surrendered to Grant, Port Hudson followed (July 9th), and the Mississippi, as President Lincoln said, "*ran unvexed to the sea.*"

Grant's victory at Chattanooga (November 23d–25th) secured that important strategical point permanently to the North. After this battle, when Grant had been raised to the chief military command (March 9, 1864), began those grand manœuvres which brought the war to a close. Committing the overthrow of the Georgian army to Sherman, he charged himself with the destruction of the Virginian army. It took him over a year. Finally, on April 3, 1865, the Federal flag floated over the Southern capital. Lee had hurried westward, aiming to unite with Johnston's army in North Carolina. But Sherman, who had completed his victorious *March to the Sea*, and had entered (March 3, 1865) Goldsboro, North Carolina, barred the path of Lee's retreating army. He surrendered to Grant, April 9th, at *Appomattox Court-house.* Johnston surrendered to Sherman (April 26th). By the end of May, 1865, all the Confederate forces had surrendered. The war of the great rebellion was at an end.

The South had appealed to the sword, and the decision had been against her. She frankly and wisely accepted it, and laid aside all thought of armed resistance. Her leaders did not, however, consent readily to those guarantees of future tranquillity which the North sternly demanded. Congress therefore passed (March 2, 1867) the *Reconstruction Act*, by which the ten Southern States were divided into five military districts, each commanded by an army officer, who should see to the protection of life and property. The seceded States were to be restored to their place in the Union, whenever a convention of delegates, "elected by the male citizens . . . of whatever race, color, or previous condition," except those disfranchised for participation in rebellion, etc., should frame a Constitution, which, being ratified by the people and approved by Congress, should go into operation, and the Legislature thereupon elected should adopt the fourteenth amendment. This amendment secured to the freedmen the right of citizenship, declared the validity of the national debt, and regulated the basis of representation and disqualification from office. For five years after the end of the war some of the Southern States continued to refuse these terms, and consequently continued to endure the evils of military rule. Gradually, however, as time soothed the bitterness of defeat, they withdrew their refusal and consented to resume their position in the Union on the conditions which were offered to them. In 1870 President Grant was able to announce the completed restoration of the Union, which his own leadership had done so much to save.

Nine years afterward (New Years' Day, 1879) specie payments were resumed, after seventeen years of an inconvertible currency. The public debt had reached its maximum August 31, 1865, on which day it amounted to $2,845,907,626.56. When specie payments were resumed more than nine hundred million dollars of the debt had been paid, and on July 1, 1885, the debt had been reduced about one-half ($1,525,911,080.33).

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